

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### NATION-WIDE INVESTIGATIONS OF ENGLISH USAGE READING, AND VOCABULARY

A communication from Paul S. Achilles, secretary of the Psychological Corporation, indicates that the five-year investigation which was launched last year to provide essential data for the improvement of instruction in English usage, reading, and vocabulary and for more effective allocation of subject matter within curriculums will be continued on an even larger scale during the current school year. This investigation has been undertaken in co-operation with the English Council and is directed by L. J. O'Rourke. To date the program has been confined to a study of English usage, and approximately 825,000 pupils throughout the United States and its territories have participated in survey and achievement tests in this phase of the project. Estimate blanks received by the Psychological Corporation indicate that approximately a million pupils will participate in the enlarged program during October and November of this year. The investigation will be conducted in two sections, the first including Grades III-VI and the second, Grades VII-XIII.

The announcement has the following to say concerning the purposes of the three main phases of the whole project.

Some of the aims of the English-usage survey are (1) to bring a closer agreement as to which phases of English usage are essential and which may well be eliminated from the elementary- and secondary-school curriculums; (2) to determine the level at which each specific phase of usage should be given major emphasis and the points at which and the extent to which the teaching of that phase should be reinforced by review; (3) to evolve a general English-usage curriculum which may serve as a guide for the schools of this country, even though they do not adhere strictly to it.

The purpose of the reading survey is to determine, through controlled research programs, (1) the degree of interpretation which is achieved at different age and grade levels, (2) the different types of interpretation attainable at these levels, (3) the appropriate instructional responsibilities at various grade levels.

The reading survey will also be divided into two parts on the basis of school grades, the first part including Grades III-VI and the second, Grades VII-XIII. Attention will also be given to reading courses such as those conducted for Freshmen by the University of Chicago. The purpose in studying such courses will be to determine the extent to which mastery of different types of interpretation is related to mastery of subject matter in various courses, as well as the extent to which progress in the mastery of types of interpretations is indicative of improvement in various courses.

The data secured by means of the survey conducted during October and November will indicate the extent to which certain types of interpretation differ from each other and the extent to which these types are related or interdependent. Such data will also be a valuable guide in determining at what grade or age level different types of interpretation can most profitably be introduced and at what level given major emphasis.

The objectives of the vocabulary survey are closely allied with those of the reading study, and the results of this survey will supplement those of the reading study. In the vocabulary survey one test will cover Grades III-XIII.

The statement concerning the project carries a brief summary of the findings to date, only a part of which is quoted here.

National norms are being completed and will be sent to all schools that cooperated in the English-usage study last year, in order that they may compare the achievement of their pupils with national standards. The analysis of records which have so far been tabulated shows that the items involving problems of sentence structure presented the greatest difficulty to pupils of Grades VII-XIII. In order of difficulty, the remaining classes of items ranked as follows: adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, verb, capitalization, punctuation. Items dealing with the cases of pronouns were found to be least difficult. These differences in difficulty held practically constant for Grades VII-XIII in both the October and April surveys. Items involving the correct use of pronouns, aside from case, and other miscellaneous items are not included in making this comparison because of the limited number of such items and the diversity of

their content. The final report will show, for each grade from Grade III to Grade XIII, the degree to which pupils have mastered each phase of usage included in the test.

The relative progress in the mastery of phases of English usage which is made by pupils during the seventh to the twelfth grade is indicated to some extent by the degree of overlap shown in the following figures. On the entire tests 20 per cent of seventh-grade pupils made better scores than 10 per cent of the twelfth grade; 10 per cent of the seventh grade made better scores than 20 per cent of the twelfth grade. Twenty per cent of the eighth grade made better scores than 28 per cent of the twelfth grade; 10 per cent of the eighth grade made better scores than 42 per cent of the twelfth grade.

Unquestionably, the low degree of mastery of English usage found to exist generally throughout Grades III-XIII shows the need for more exact determination of essentials and greater concentration on these essentials.

Invitation is extended to all schools to participate in the study. For the English-usage survey two tests have been provided, one of fifty items for use in Grades III-VI and the other of seventy-five items for use in Grades VII-XIII. Each of the tests is printed on a single sheet of paper and requires but forty minutes of testing time. Further statements concerning the conditions of participation and the manner of securing copies of the tests and information with regard to the program are quoted.

Owing to limited grants the corporation is conducting the surveys on a partially self-financing basis, and consequently there will be a nominal charge for the tests to cover research programs and trials incidental to development of materials, analysis of data, writing reports, printing and mailing of several thousand free samples of tests, and teachers' materials. Answers to thousands of specific inquiries with regard to objectives, methods, and analysis are among the items that grants are not sufficient to cover.

For samples of the tests and further information with regard to participating in the October-November Achievement Test Program address the Director of English Program, the Psychological Corporation, 3506 Patterson Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C. Samples will be sent gratis to school officials who forward their school addresses. In accordance with the request of school officials, tests will not be sent to anyone at a private address.

#### FOOTBALL AS A HIGH-SCHOOL SPORT

In an article in a recent issue of the *Bulletin of High Points in the Work of the High Schools in New York City*, Joseph C. Saltman, chairman of the department of health education in the Franklin K. Lane High School in New York City, discusses the place of football

in the program of health education in the high school. After presenting an outline of the activities in the health program and a discussion of the obstacles set up by football in carrying out the program, Mr. Saltman gives his conclusions. These are presented, however, following an acknowledgment that "school teams and inter-school competitive athletics have their place in our educational scheme."

After being connected with high-school football for twelve years, both as coach and official, and after many conferences with a number of our successful coaches and officials, the writer is firmly convinced that football is a game to be played by more mature boys. It is not a high-school sport. Some of the reasons are as follows:

1. There are too many hazards in the "tackling" and "taking-out" tactics.
2. The growing boy (fifteen to eighteen) is not ready for a game that is so highly specialized and that calls for so much body contact.
3. The high-school boy should devote his time to building power, endurance, and speed, without the interference that comes from injuries. He should, if interested in playing college football, give all his time to learning the techniques of the game such as kicking (punt, placement, and drop-kick), throwing and receiving passes, open field running, and the rules of the game.
4. A few of our successful coaches stated that they would not permit their own boys to play high-school football.
5. The high schools cannot give their football players the same health protection that the college player receives. (a) It takes a large staff of expert coaches to train a college football squad. High schools cannot afford this expensive instruction. The high-school coach, in most cases, works alone and is obliged to teach boys who know practically nothing about the game. (b) Colleges provide trainers and doctors at practice sessions and at games. The high-school coach is the manager, trainer, doctor, and adviser and carries a teaching program in the school. (c) Equipment that affords the most protection against injury is expensive. Some colleges spend as much as \$100 for one player's outfit. High schools cannot afford this protection.
6. The playing facilities in high school are inadequate. Many schools have no practice fields, and the boys are compelled to travel to distant parks. After a few hours of hard drilling they arrive home late, too tired to eat and too tired to study.
7. It is doubtful whether parents generally want their boys to play football in high school.
8. There is an excess of newspaper publicity, and the high-school boy is not old enough to shoulder the burden. As a result, we find the swaggering, boastful type of athlete who assumes the privilege of cutting classes.
9. Genuine and lasting school spirit or "morale" does not grow out of a sport that creates a specialized athletic group so sharply separated from the rest of the



student body. More than one football rally a season is necessary to coax student support. . . .

Following a commendation of "touch football" as more suitable for high-school pupils, Mr. Saltman goes on to say:

It may, however, not be possible to remedy the situation at once by ruling football out of the high schools in which it is an established sport, but the least we can do is to recognize the existing evils and begin to eliminate them in the following ways:

1. Recommend that those high schools which have no practice grounds within walking distance of the school drop football from their interschool athletic program.

2. Require schools to have a doctor present at all practice sessions and games and discontinue the practice of using the services of boys from first-aid clubs.

3. Make certain that the parents' consent blank was signed by the parent and not by the boy.

4. Limit the number of games to be played a season to five instead of seven, eight, or nine.

5. Refrain from joining the young newspaper reporters in selecting so-called "all-scholastic" teams and discourage the acceptance of the newspaper award of gold footballs. This award is meaningless and very discouraging to many deserving boys.

6. Omit the football dinner at the end of the season, win or lose, and establish the custom of having one athletic dinner a year for the "letter men" of all sports.

7. Supervise more rigidly the form of rules and regulations governing the sport. The Public Schools Athletic League or High School Games Committee can go further than merely assigning officials to the games.

8. Permit all students who join the General Organization for the whole year (\$1.00 a year membership) free admission to all interschool athletic contests including football. This will encourage 100 per cent G.O. membership, provide ample funds, and eliminate the commercial and professional elements.

We are fortunate not to be burdened with the college problems. We are not obliged to cater to an alumni association that craves winning football teams. We have no reason to advertise our high schools; they are overcrowded now. Our principals need no advertising; they have already won recognition as educators and organizers.

The college claim that football pays for all the other sports is not applicable to the high schools. Our General Organizations have sufficient funds to support school teams. We do not need \$30,000 or \$40,000 G.O. treasuries. We have no stadiums to build. As for school spirit, we find it more genuine in a few of our high schools that have had no football teams.

It should not be considered our function to "feed" the colleges "ready-made" football stars. It is our business to lay the foundation, to teach the boys the fundamentals, and, as in the academic subjects, send them on to higher learning.

## THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN MICHIGAN

The March issue of the *School Review* reported the announcement of a study of the high-school curriculum to be made under the auspices of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. The study was carried forward as planned, and a report was made at the sessions of that organization held early in May. The summary was presented by George E. Carrothers, professor of secondary education at the University of Michigan, who was in charge of the investigation. We are privileged to quote the general conclusions from the summary, although such a brief quotation as it is possible to give here fails to do justice to Professor Carrothers' paper, which was itself too brief to give an adequate impression of the complete study. This statement may be judged from the fact that a total of 5,160 tables were compiled from the blanks returned from more than six hundred schools in the state. The full report will be published by the Editorial Office at the University of Michigan. The general conclusions of Professor Carrothers' summary will at least suggest the scope and the nature of the investigation. Chiefly, the study as a whole shows the present place in the curriculum of the different subjects and subject groups and the direction of change preferred by the principals of the schools.

1. The general response indicated a real interest on the part of principals in curriculum study and revision.
2. Many and varied curriculums are being organized in an attempt to meet pupil needs.
3. Indications are that principals of public high schools are better acquainted with the principles of curriculum organization than are principals of non-public schools.
4. Principals of high schools do desire some gradual changes in high-school curriculums; they are able to make these changes when so desired; and they are bringing about the changes about as rapidly as they think conditions warrant.
5. Regular courses in English are believed in and would be continued as at present. At the same time, principals wish the special courses in dramatics and play production, journalism, and public speaking to receive greater emphasis. Of these, public speaking is the most popular.
6. Special courses in English are not required for graduation.
7. On the whole, principals are pretty well satisfied with mathematics as now offered.

8. Private high schools both offer and require greater amounts of mathematics than do public schools.

9. Private high schools offer about double the amount of Latin that is offered in public high schools. Principals in public high schools would reduce by about 11 per cent the already smaller amount of Latin now offered.

10. Foreign languages in junior high schools appear to be offered in smaller amounts than was true a few years ago, and principals of these schools would reduce the amounts now being offered and required.

11. Principals of both public and private high schools express the desire to see German offered much more extensively than at present.

12. Physics is taught more often than any other science, chemistry second, biology third, and general science fourth. The tendency is toward offering general science below the three-year or the four-year high school.

13. In social studies, community civics or ancient history is offered in the ninth grade, world-history in the tenth, American history in the eleventh, and advanced civics and economics in the twelfth.

14. Principals desire to see ancient history, modern and medieval history, and English history reduced in amounts. They wish community civics, American history, and world-history offered more extensively. Reports show that these two changes are being brought about.

15. There are many other observations and tentative conclusions which can be drawn from the mass of data sent in, but time and space forbid their inclusion in this report.

#### ACTIVITIES OF COUNSELORS AND VISITING TEACHERS IN MINNEAPOLIS

The schools of Minneapolis were among the first to provide for the appointment of visiting teachers. More recently, during the expansion of the program of guidance, counselors have been appointed. Both these functionaries are to be found on the staffs of many secondary schools in the city. There has been some discussion of the differentiation and the overlapping of the activities of appointees of these two types. To throw light on the problem, Adner I. Heggerson, assistant in research in the office of the Board of Education of Minneapolis, made an analysis of the diaries kept by counselors and visiting teachers. The results of this analysis have been presented and interpreted in the *Vocational Guidance Bulletin*, a publication of the Minneapolis public schools. The tables on which the interpretation is based show clearly enough that the responsibilities of the two positions are fairly well differentiated. The tables and the commentary on the tables are quoted.

Seventy-nine and six-tenths per cent of all the problems handled by the counselors in their dealings with boys and girls had to do with educational and vocational guidance. The largest proportion of these problems were concerned

PERCENTAGES OF TYPES OF PROBLEMS HANDLED  
BY COUNSELORS AND VISITING TEACHERS

Type of Problem	Counselors	Visiting Teachers
Educational and vocational guidance:		
Educational and vocational plans . . . . .	42.2	2.6
Poor scholarship . . . . .	23.1	7.9
Vocational information . . . . .	7.8	0.0
Program adjustment . . . . .	3.5	0.0
Placement . . . . .	2.7	0.2
Work permits . . . . .	0.3	0.2
Total . . . . .	79.6	10.9
Social and personality problems:		
Behavior . . . . .	5.6	27.3
Home conditions . . . . .	0.8	20.4
Attendance . . . . .	1.4	16.8
Truancy . . . . .	0.3	3.5
Relief . . . . .	2.4	8.3
Health . . . . .	1.3	8.6
Home placement . . . . .	0.2	0.6
Total . . . . .	12.0	85.5
Other problems . . . . .	8.4	3.6

PERCENTAGE OF TIME SPENT ON  
SPECIFIED DUTIES

Duty	Counselors	Visiting Teachers
Interviews with pupils at school . . . . .	55.9	30.6
Home visits . . . . .	2.1	19.2
Agency visits . . . . .	0.0	4.9
Conferences (with teachers or others) . . . . .	4.9	5.7
Meeting groups of students for conferences . . . . .	10.2	0.0
Telephone . . . . .	4.2	7.3
Securing and recording data . . . . .	18.5	15.1
Travel . . . . .	0.8	11.2
Professional meetings . . . . .	3.4	6.0

with the educational and vocational plans of the pupils. This meant explaining courses, credits, electives, and helping pupils plan their high-school and vocational-school courses in accordance with their vocational plans. It also included giving information about occupations, considering placement problems, and dealing with children whose scholarship was poor and who needed some sort of personal adjustment to the school situation. The visiting teachers reported

only 10.9 per cent of problems of this kind, and these were reported for the most part by visiting teachers working in schools where there were no counselors. Only 2.6 per cent of the problems handled by the visiting teacher dealt definitely with educational and vocational plans. Seven and nine-tenths per cent were problems of non-achieving pupils. Often these were cases referred by the counselor to the visiting teacher because of the complications due to home environment, emotional difficulties, poor attendance, or some other problem.

Almost 85 per cent of the problems referred to the visiting teachers were problems of social and personality adjustment, while only 12 per cent of the problems referred to counselors were of this nature. Pupils whose major difficulties involve undesirable behavior reactions, truancy, poor attendance, and pupils who need relief in the form of clothing, books, or lunches form the bulk of the cases sent to the visiting teachers. Sixteen per cent of the visiting teachers' problems had to do with attendance. This is large this semester because the visiting teachers in the junior high schools are trying the experiment of handling all attendance problems instead of referring truancy cases to the central attendance office as has been done heretofore. The counselors reported 12 per cent of problems having to do with social and personality problems; this is unduly high because in the senior high schools there are no visiting teachers, and the counselor finds it necessary to handle all kinds of personnel problems.

The counselor spends over one-half of her time in interviews with pupils, teachers, and parents within the school building, while the visiting teacher spends about one-third of her time in this way. The visiting teacher, however, spends 19.2 per cent additional time in home visits, while the school counselor spends only 2 per cent of her time in making calls outside the school. The social-case-work aspects of the visiting teacher's work are further indicated by the fact that she spends 5 per cent of her time working with social agencies. Both workers spend considerable time in conferences with teachers, thus getting the facts about the child and his plans back to those most concerned in teaching him. Ten per cent of the counselor's time was spent in meeting groups of students for the purpose of giving information about schools, courses of training, and vocations. The visiting teachers rarely meet pupils in groups or classes.

Clerical work in both groups of workers looms large, but it is justifiable in that it means assembling data about the individual child from the school records—school marks, health reports, psychological tests, etc. Futile indeed is time spent in interviewing unless this has been done. Securing and recording data also includes time spent in recording significant information gained in an interview and the preparation of personnel data to be sent on to the school to which the student is transferring so that he may be treated as an individual there from the first. In the case of the visiting teachers this includes the keeping of records on major and minor cases and the preparation of histories for the Child Guidance Clinic.

A justifiable generalization of the differences in the work of the two positions seems to be that the counselor is concerned with guidance in the stricter sense, whereas the visiting teacher has to do more largely with adjustment. These two functionaries appear to be supplementary to each other and only to a small extent duplicative. Both main types of service are essential to an adequately democratized secondary education.

OBLIGATORY EXPENSES OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS  
IN NEW YORK CITY

An issue of some moment often discussed by principals, teachers, and patrons (present and prospective) of high schools concerns the justification and magnitude of the outlays pupils are obliged to make in connection with the extra-curriculum and related activities. The issue is involved with the democratization of secondary education, a common belief being that large obligatory expenses of this sort militate against attendance in high schools of children from less well-to-do families. Such a belief gains point during periods in which the proportions of families in financial distress are larger than usual.

It must have been a belief in some such discouragement of attendance in high schools that prompted the Teachers Council of New York City to inquire into the nature and amount of these obligatory expenses. Results of this inquiry were made public at a recent meeting of that body. We are indebted to the *New York Sun* for a summary of the report and of the discussion following its presentation.

The boy or girl who graduates from a public high school in this city is required to spend an average of \$5.23 for obligatory extra-curriculum expenses during the four-year course, according to a report presented to and approved by the Teachers Council at its meeting.

These compulsory expenses, as listed in the report, which was compiled by Aaron I. Dotey, formerly of De Witt Clinton High School, include such items as locker keys, general-organization dues, gymnasium outfits, school paper, graduation expenses, swimming-pool charges, and Arista fees.

The figure of \$5.23 was compiled, Mr. Dotey stated, as a result of a questionnaire addressed to the principals of the thirty-eight senior and two junior-senior high schools under the jurisdiction of the board of education and represents an average cost of thirty-one of these schools. Nine schools, he said, reported that there are absolutely no obligatory extra-curriculum expenses which their students are required to meet.

The report disclosed that there is considerable variety as to the amount of extra-curriculum expenses imposed on students in the different high schools. The detailed tables of expense distribution which were given in the report revealed that the greatest number of expense items obligatory in any high school is five. Only two schools reported that number of compulsory expense items, according to the tables, while most of the schools reported only one or two obligatory expense items, and nine schools reported a complete absence of compulsory expenses.

Graduation costs, ranging from one dollar up, was the item of compulsory expense listed in the largest number of high schools, being found in twenty schools, while gymnasium costs, listed as compulsory in thirteen schools, ranked next in point of distribution.

The opinion offered at the conclusion of the report is that "in general the number of obligatory expense items is not so great that the combined amounts would work a hardship."

Criticism of the report was voiced by F. R. Beygrau, of Theodore Roosevelt High School, for failure to include such items as library dues and to take into account the pressure on students to buy tickets for athletic games, entertainments, and lectures. Mr. Beygrau asserted that, although such expenses may be classed as voluntary by the principal, there is constant pressure on the students to buy tickets for football and baseball games or to purchase tickets for class entertainments. "These items impose a severe drain on a good many students," he said, "and those who cannot afford to pay for such things are embarrassed and feel left out of things."

In reply to this criticism, Mr. Dotey admitted the existence of this pressure and stated that it had been considered in the preparation of his report. He added, however, that children must be put to the test of managing their own affairs and must learn to resist pressure. "The high school is the place," he declared, "for children to learn to say 'No' when necessary."

#### STUDYING THE PROBLEM OF MOTION PICTURES IN ENGLAND AND AMERICA

The problem of the control of the film industry in the interests of the young is not restricted to this country; it presses for attention wherever there are both motion pictures and children. In other words, the problem is universal. A correspondent to the *London Times Educational Supplement*, in a recent issue, reviews current efforts to study the problem in England. We quote the discussion at length.

Official action, hitherto, has been negative rather than constructive. It has been designed to protect young people from being shown films of a degrading and outrageous character and more especially to keep young boys and girls away from displays meant for older persons. The British Board of Film Censors



. . . . differentiates between "A" films, which are suitable for adult audiences only, and "U" films, which are for universal exhibition. The model rules recommended by the Home Office and adopted by many licensing authorities prohibit the showing of films other than those passed for universal exhibition, so long as children under sixteen, unaccompanied by parents or guardians, are on the premises. A notice must be placed in the cinema hall describing the category of films to be shown in the program and the time when each will be thrown on the screen. The responsibility for allowing the child to be present at an unsuitable film rests therefore with the parents. The Liverpool licensing justices have gone a step farther and have forbidden the attendance of a child under sixteen when "A" films are being exhibited. A contravention of this regulation resulted in the case being taken to court, when the offending cinema proprietor was fined. The judgment was upheld on appeal. . . .

Two important reports issued last week, and others published recently or about to be published, express the need for further action and inquiry. The report of investigations carried on by the Birmingham Cinema Inquiry Committee indicates that the present methods of classifying films by the censorship (and indeed the censorship itself) are by no means entirely satisfactory. Some 450 reports were obtained on 285 films, and a number of Saturday afternoon performances were visited. Questions were also addressed to 1,439 Birmingham children between the ages of eight and fourteen, of whom rather more than half were found to attend once and 184 twice weekly. The replies given are clearly the unaided responses of the children. Comic pictures hold the main place in their affections, followed by adventure and detective films. There is a large contingent which likes war pictures, both among boys and girls, but they do not care for what are termed "frightening" ones. The so-called "sex films" seem to make little appeal to them. The boys like anything except a love story, though some of the girls favor pictures of this type. The children themselves make references to the unseemly nature of some of the pictures shown and to the need for more decent dress among the performers.

The Birmingham Committee submitted the results of their inquiry to a crowded meeting held at the University, and the results of the investigation, together with a petition, were subsequently presented to the Home Secretary by a deputation. In a foreword to the report Sir Charles Grant Robertson points out that the object of his committee, in taking action, has been to press the Home Secretary to institute an impartial inquiry which could hear evidence from every quarter and every interest, the results of which, he is confident, would lead to drastic and beneficial changes in the regulations at present governing the exercise of the censorship.

The conclusions arrived at by the National Council of Women . . . are favorable to a voluntary system of film censorship rather than a statutory system, but it is urged that closer contact between the Board of Film Censors and public opinion should be secured by the establishment of a consultative committee which should include representatives of the Home Office, the Board of

Film Censors, and the Board of Trade Film Advisory Committee. Such a committee, it is suggested, could keep in touch with the trade interests on the one hand and the general public on the other, and encourage the production of better-class films. The Council further point out the unwholesome influence of many "A" films upon young people in the impressionable years of life between sixteen and twenty-five—"nor," they go on to say, "can the effect of such films upon older people be disregarded." They ask for a "clean cinema" for everybody, which will show plays of dramatic and artistic quality.

These views are likely to receive indorsement from an inquiry which is being completed by the Mothers' Union, the results of which will be published this summer. The investigators, who are experienced workers, have tested programs and films on the basis of the new American code, which has been designed to raise the standard of the film industry in the United States. While it is considered that the general standard is rising, a recent report on the subject by the Public Morality Council, which has been in touch with the movement in America, indicates that some of the newer films do not show the influence of the code. Attention has been drawn to the matter, but the reply is unsatisfactory.

About 90 per cent of the films shown in this country are American productions, but British standards, also, leave much to be desired. At the end of last year the Board of Film Censors issued a letter to the trade intimating that in future "no film will receive the Board's certificate in which the theme, without any redeeming characteristic, depends upon intense brutality or the unrelieved sordidness of the scenes depicted." It indicates a bad state of things that such a communication should have become necessary.

The various inquiries which have been undertaken and the general desire for improvement of the film industry which underlies these activities point to the need for a public body which will not only act as a consultative committee, as is suggested by the National Council of Women, but which will also exercise a positive influence in the production and exhibition of good films. The Commission on Educational and Cultural Films, which was set up some eighteen months ago as the result of a conference of representative societies and institutions held at Burlington House, would seem to be the kind of permanent central organization which might do valuable constructive work. It could raise the standard of public appreciation by co-ordinating all those efforts, at present somewhat diffused, which seek to make the cinema a means for education and enlightenment in the broadest sense. . . .

When it is realized that millions of people attend the cinema throughout the year, its influence on their outlook is, as the Commission points out, incalculable. As it says, the film is a new medium, and if we do not turn it soon to our service, we may find that it has turned itself to our disservice. There will be general agreement with its view that England must not remain permanently content to allow the film industry to develop without some positive influence exerted upon it from the point of view of national welfare.

The immensity and the urgency of the problem make us impatient that we do not have an adequate program of inquiry into it on this side of the Atlantic. We should be measurably gratified that *some* investigation is being made. The report of one agency investigating the problem on a country-wide basis has recently been published—*The Public Relations of the Motion Picture Industry* prepared by the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. The study was undertaken by this department at the request of the Federal Council's Commission on Motion Pictures. The inquiry considered the industry in only one aspect, but a salient one, the organized relations of the industry to the public. These relations are maintained chiefly through the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Incorporated, commonly known as the "Hays organization." The department reporting regards the inquiry as "a case study in corporate ethics."

In the conclusions to this report the investigators admit that the Hays organization "has set up some constructive procedures and has definite accomplishments to its credit." They do not, however, rest the case with mere commendation. They go on to say:

But the development of a public-spirited policy within the industry is a slow process and fraught with difficulties of which the organization has not informed the public. To win acceptance for social standards and ethical trade practices by the producers and to keep refractory members from "running out" on the organization has taxed the resources of its officers, who have nevertheless sought to conceal their household problems and to put up a bold front to the public. A franker acknowledgment of difficulties and a placing of responsibility for tardiness of achievement might have gained greater public support and might also have been an effectual disciplinary measure within the organization. As matters stand critics of the industry contend that there is a disappointing disparity between "promise and fulfilment."

Among obstacles to the introduction of higher standards the investigators refer to the advent of sound, which let in "a horde of undisciplined vaudeville actors and entertainers"; the "block booking" and "blind booking," which put the exhibitor of taste and conscientiousness at a disadvantage; and the relation between the films themselves and the advertising by which the public is induced to go to see them.

The most trenchant criticism of the Hays organization in these

conclusions refers to the pretense to authority which the organization does not actually possess.

The prime requisite for an adequate test of co-operative measures is a clearer understanding on the part of socially minded people of the function of the Hays organization as the producers and distributors themselves understand it. The frequent reference to Mr. Hays as a "czar" of the industry is misleading. We find no ground for such a claim to power on his behalf, yet the circumstances of the creation of Mr. Hays' office were such as to encourage it, and Mr. Hays' assurances that the industry "stands at attention" to do the will of disinterested public groups suggest some extraordinary power on his part. Thus, it has come about that critics of the industry have tended to draw one of two inferences: either the organization is impotent to do what Mr. Hays and his associates would like to accomplish or it is a "smoke screen" to deceive the public and to cover purposes of a narrowly selfish character.

The fact seems to be that the producers and distributors never intended to delegate to Mr. Hays arbitrary power but that they have looked to him and to his organization to negotiate, so to speak, with an insistent public opinion in a way to accommodate the industry to inevitable changes in standards with the least possible loss to a group of profit-making enterprises. This is not to say that they were uninterested in standards, but they were conducting a business, and they probably acted in accord with prevailing policies among business enterprises. We believe that a full understanding of his limited powers and of the difficulties that have constantly attended the efforts of his organization in the field of standards would have done much to simplify the task of Mr. Hays and to allay suspicion concerning his organization.

The following concluding paragraph of the report is clearly in accord with the demand for a positive policy of control urged by the correspondent to the *London Times Educational Supplement*.

The agencies representing the community would do well to make their influence more broadly social. It is well that critics of the industry should be alert to discover and eliminate objectionable scenes and spoken lines, but this is only the negative aspect of the problem. The industry should be made to feel a demand for more socially useful pictures, for pictures that will contribute to the effort in which the churches are engaged to promote responsible citizenship, inter-racial understanding, industrial justice, and international good will. The religious and social agencies are themselves at fault in becoming too much preoccupied with "cuts" and "eliminations." The motion pictures cannot be made good by the use of scissors.

#### INFORMING STUDENTS CONCERNING THE PROFESSIONS

A principal phase of any adequate program of guidance is that of informing the student concerning occupations and occupational

opportunities. Two efforts to make available in compact form information concerning occupations at the professional level have recently made their way into print. The first of these is a series of leaflets being issued by the United States Office of Education, bearing the title *Careers* and prepared by Walter J. Greenleaf, specialist in higher education. So far in the series have appeared leaflets dealing with law, medicine, dentistry, journalism, librarianship, architecture, civil engineering, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, pharmacy, and nursing. The nature of the contents of these publications may be suggested by indicating the headings in the thirteen-page leaflet on law: "Law as a Career," "Training," "Bar Admission Requirements," "The American Bar Association," "The Association of American Law Schools," "The Law Schools," "Admission to Law Schools," "Curriculum," "Degrees," and "College Expenses." The leaflet includes also a short bibliography of selected references for students desiring more information concerning this profession than that supplied in the leaflet itself and lists of day and evening law schools. Data as to the amount of prelegal work required, the length of the course, tuition, and enrolment in 1929 are given for each school. The leaflets are for sale at five cents a copy by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

The second series of pamphlets is being published by the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement of the University of Chicago with the co-operation of the departments of the University. The pamphlets are being edited by Robert C. Woellner, executive secretary of the board. Pamphlets available to date deal with vocational opportunities in art, business, chemistry, English, history, home economics, political science, social service, and sociology. Most of the pamphlets contain, besides a brief statement concerning the professions related to each subject field, brief bibliographies for further reading. This consideration of occupations related to each subject field is a unique feature of the series and is peculiarly appropriate for the guidance of students during their pursuit of earlier courses and prior to their entering upon advanced work. The series includes a preliminary pamphlet on general education and the general problem and procedure in selecting a vocation.

## A SURVEY OF SOCIAL-STUDIES COURSES IN 301 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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At no time since the social studies have been taught in the secondary schools of the United States has their importance in achieving the objectives of a democratic education been so widely recognized as during the last decade, and at no time has the curriculum in the field been so uncertain and disordered, so little sure of itself. The older sanctions and standards for the teaching of academic social-science subject matter seem inadequate before the demands of current educational theory and the necessities of current educational practice. More social studies are now offered in schools than ever before, but the social-studies courses are more varied in content, more heterogeneous in development and point of view, and more confusingly placed as to grade location and time allotment than a previous generation could conceive.

Especially is it true that throughout the 1920's extreme uncertainty existed as to what to teach in the junior high school. Itself a new educational unit, peculiarly subject to the broader sociological trends as well as to the educational aspirations of the period, and with its function and possibilities but dimly glimpsed, the junior high school both stimulated experimentation and was stimulated by experimentation in the teaching of the social studies. Yet there was, and is, no consensus of opinion as to what should be taught in Grades VII, VIII, and IX; the social-science offerings of the junior high schools over the country as a whole are still of the widest variety in content, in organization, in grade placement, in time allotment, and in teaching method.

In a study reported in 1921 Rodgers<sup>1</sup> surveyed sixty-seven junior

<sup>1</sup> J. Harvey Rodgers, "Junior High School Curricula and Programs," *School Review*, XXIX (March, 1921), 198-205.



high schools erected as administrative units in 6-3-3 systems and found five social-science courses offered. His data indicate that United States history and political geography dominated the field ten years ago. These two subjects were concentrated in Grades VII and VIII, social studies were less extensively offered in Grade IX, and there was little consensus of opinion as to what should be taught in that year. A survey made by Tryon, Smith, and Rood<sup>1</sup> in 1925-26 analyzes the published curriculums of seventy-eight junior high school centers and finds twenty-three separate courses in social science offered in Grades VII, VIII, and IX. The data their survey presents deal with school systems rather than with individual schools and summarize the courses by titles. No analysis of the descriptive accuracy of the titles nor of the overlapping of content was undertaken. Geography was the social study most frequently taught in Grade VII, with American history in second place. In Grade VIII history was most frequently offered, with civics a close second. In Grade IX there was very little agreement in practice, although civics was somewhat ahead of the other subjects listed. The most significant points about the data, however, are not the information which they furnish as to grade placement but their revelations as to existing variety in titles, the very large number of courses offered, and the implied experimentation with courses in "general social science."

These two studies indicate the extent to which there have been uncertainty and groping in the teaching of the social studies in junior high schools during the past decade. In 1923 J. Montgomery Gambrill made a nation-wide survey of curriculum experimentation then under way in the teaching of the social studies and found more experimentation in the junior high school than at any other point in the school system.<sup>2</sup> In 1929 one of the writers of this article, surveying current curriculum experimentation in the social studies for the *Historical Outlook*, was forced to the conclusion that "there has been widespread willingness to experiment in the teaching of the social

<sup>1</sup> R. M. Tryon, H. L. Smith, and Allan F. Rood, "The Program of Studies in Seventy-eight Junior High School Centers," *School Review*, XXXV (February, 1927), 96-107.

<sup>2</sup> J. Montgomery Gambrill, "Experimental Curriculum-making in the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, XIV (December, 1923), 384-406; XV (January, 1924), 37-55; "Some Tendencies and Issues in the Making of Social-Studies Curricula," *Historical Outlook*, XV (February, 1924), 84-89.



studies during the past decade. The chief field of experimentation has been, and is, at the junior high school level."<sup>1</sup> The junior high school, then, has been the battle ground of the controversies and the laboratory of the searchings which have characterized the teaching of the social studies since 1920.

*Technique of the present survey.*—In the spring of 1930 questionnaires requesting the titles of the social-science courses offered were mailed by the writers of this article to 629 junior high schools distributed in 13 states of the United States. The schools were also requested to name the textbooks used in the courses or to give outlines showing the topics studied. Questionnaires were sent to all the junior high schools in California, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin (or to supervisors having charge of these schools) and to a sampling of junior high schools in Alabama, Arkansas, Idaho, Illinois, Maryland, Michigan, and Ohio. The geographical distribution of the schools to which inquiries were addressed, as well as that of the 301 schools from which usably completed replies were received, and the general administrative organization of the reporting schools are summarized in Table I. It is to be noted that the 301 schools whose social-science programs were secured do not represent "junior high school centers" as in the study of Tryon, Smith, and Rood. This survey is one of individual schools, not of school systems; thus, the 35 junior high schools in Los Angeles all enter into the total of schools surveyed, contributing 35 of the total 301 schools. By far the greatest number of schools included in the survey, however, are located in systems maintaining only one junior high school. A second factor to be considered is that the nineteen Texas schools included cover Grades VI, VII, and VIII since the school organizations of which they are a part are 5-3-3 systems. In spite of this fact, and for the sake of clarity and brevity, their returns are tabulated with those for the junior high school grades of the 6-3-3 systems. The survey is concerned with the offering of the "junior schools" more than with that of particular grades.

*Social-studies courses offered.*—The social-studies courses offered in the 301 schools of the survey cover a wide range and are titled in

<sup>1</sup> Howard E. Wilson, "Current Curricular Experimentation on the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, XX (December, 1929), 392.

many ways. The purpose of the survey was to penetrate beyond the titles, however, by an examination either of the list of topics studied or of the basic textbook or textbooks for a given course. This examination, rough as it was, made possible the grouping together of courses of similar content regardless of dissimilar titles. Thus, a course titled "Survey of Civilization" might become either world-history or European backgrounds, depending on its content.

TABLE I  
GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AND ADMINISTRATIVE CHARACTER OF  
SCHOOLS INCLUDED IN THIS SURVEY

STATE	NUMBER OF QUESTION- NAIRES SENT	NUMBER OF REPLIES RECEIVED	NUMBER OF USABLE REPLIES TABU- LATED	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS WITH VARIOUS SYSTEMS OF ORGANIZATION			
				6-3-3 System	6-2-4 System	6-6 System	Other Systems
Alabama.....	5	3	2	2	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas.....	17	8	8	8	.....	.....	.....
California.....	140	74	74	66	1	3	4
Idaho.....	3	3	3	3	.....	.....	.....
Illinois.....	12	7	6	3	3	.....	.....
Massachusetts.....	196	79	77	45	22	7	3
Maryland.....	18	9	9	9	.....	.....	.....
Michigan.....	15	11	11	7	2	2	.....
New Jersey.....	40	29	28	28	.....	.....	.....
Ohio.....	56	27	25	21	1	1	2
Texas.....	50	27	19	.....	.....	.....	19
Washington.....	33	23	23	21	.....	.....	2
Wisconsin.....	35	19	16	13	.....	.....	3
Total.....	629	319	301	226	29	13	33

Courses labeled "social science" or "social studies" were allocated to certain well-recognized divisions of subject matter after examination of the outline of their contents. Had all the titles reported by the 301 schools been listed separately, the list would have been even longer than that compiled by Tryon, Smith, and Rood, but the topical examination made it possible to combine the courses into ten relatively distinct and recognizable courses. The ten courses recognized are as follows:

1. American history (entire field)
2. Early period of American history (to 1776, 1800, 1829, or 1865)
3. Later period of American history
4. European backgrounds of American life

5. Ancient history
6. World-history
7. Geography
8. Civics—community and vocational
9. Harold Rugg's fusion course in social science
10. Local fusion courses

The first six of these are easily distinguishable by virtue of their titles; they are primarily historical in nature but are separated by a period or a place division. Geography, on the other hand, may mean many things, but further subdivision of this subject was not possible from the returns received. As reported, however, geography takes up almost entirely the social and regional aspects of the subject instead of giving mere place geography or physical geography, so far as topics dealt with and textbooks used are concerned. Geography is frequently offered for only a half-year and occasionally for a full year, but the tables given later indicate only its grade placement. Civics is a term even more confused and confusing than geography, and it was impossible to classify into distinct and logical divisions the various courses labeled "civics." In general, the term covers such content as is found in the textbooks by Hill<sup>1</sup> and Hughes.<sup>2</sup> The last two divisions listed have special significance in showing trends in social-science teaching and were tabulated separately. "Harold Rugg's fusion course" refers to a course based on Rugg's "Social Science Pamphlets" or on the Rugg textbooks published by Ginn and Company during the last two years.<sup>3</sup> "Local fusion courses" are those courses transcending subject lines—or at least seeming so to do—properly designated as "general social science" courses and developed by a specific school system, as in Cleveland, Ohio; Long Beach, California; or San Antonio, Texas.

<sup>1</sup> Howard Copeland Hill, *Community and Vocational Civics*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928.

<sup>2</sup> Ray O. Hughes, *A Text-Book in Citizenship*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1928 (revised).

<sup>3</sup> Harold Rugg, "The Social Science Pamphlets" (privately published in several experimental editions). The curriculum experimentally developed in the pamphlets has now eventuated in a series of four volumes for Grades VII and VIII: (a) *An Introduction to American Civilization*, (b) *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, (c) *A History of American Civilization: Economic and Social*, (d) *A History of American Government and Culture*. Boston: Ginn & Co.

*Grade placement of courses.*—Table II summarizes the distribution of offerings among these ten courses for Grades VII, VIII, and IX, both required and elective courses. In general, the data indicate that Grade VII is still concerned primarily with geography but that in most cases the early period of American history is offered also, either as a separate course or as a combination with geography on a non-fusion basis. Civics, the entire period of American history, European backgrounds of American history, and a variety of fusion courses also are offered occasionally. In Grade VIII the most widely offered course is the later period of American history, although, as a close second, the entire field of American history is taught. A few schools offer early American history, and a somewhat larger number offer geography, civics, and the fusion courses in social science. In Grade IX there is even less agreement than in Grades VII and VIII. Civics is the most widely offered course, with world-history second, ancient history third, practically no courses in American history, and scattered offerings in European backgrounds of American life, geography, and the fusion courses. Electives, almost non-existent in the first two years of the junior high school, appear fairly frequently in the third year. The tendency is to require of all pupils three years of social studies.

In summary, then, American history and geography dominate the work of Grade VII. American history and some civics are characteristic of Grade VIII, and civics and ancient history or world-history appear most frequently in Grade IX. Throughout the three years there is wide variety in the courses offered and in the actual content of the courses; many schools are inclined to experiment with general courses in the social studies analogous roughly to the general courses in the natural sciences. This summary is presented in Table III.

*Status of the social studies.*—When the data summarized in Tables II and III are considered from the standpoint of the treatment of specific subjects or courses rather than from the standpoint of grade placement, it is possible to state the following conclusions.

1. American history is taught universally except in the few schools which support a three-year fusion course, and even there it is drawn upon heavily. In most schools a full year is devoted to American

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION BY STATES OF COURSES IN SOCIAL STUDIES IN GRADES VII  
VIII, AND IX IN 301 SCHOOLS IN 1930

STATE	AMERICAN HISTORY (ENTIRE)	EARLY AMERICAN HISTORY	LATER AMERICAN HISTORY	EUROPEAN BACK-GROUNDS	ANCIENT HISTORY	WORLD-HISTORY	GEOGRAPHY	CIVICS—COMMUNITY AND VOCATIONAL	RUGG'S FUSION COURSE	LOCAL FUSION COURSES
Grade VII										
Required courses:										
California.....	0	5	0	0	0	0	38	0	30	2
Massachusetts.....	1	45	1	13	0	0	48	13	5	11
New Jersey.....	0	21	0	3	0	0	11	2	2	1
Ohio.....	3	10	0	0	0	0	11	4	0	4
Washington.....	0	17	0	0	0	0	10	1	2	1
Wisconsin.....	0	2	0	0	0	0	9	0	2	1
Others.....	4	21	0	5	0	0	24	1	7	9
Total.....	8	121	1	21	0	0	151	21	48	29
Elective courses:										
Wisconsin.....	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total.....	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grade VIII										
Required courses:										
California.....	45	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	23	2
Massachusetts.....	8	6	46	0	0	0	20	10	4	8
New Jersey.....	3	0	21	0	0	0	9	2	2	1
Ohio.....	3	11	0	0	0	0	3	12	0	4
Washington.....	3	0	15	0	0	0	3	7	2	1
Wisconsin.....	9	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	1
Others.....	20	8	12	0	0	0	2	9	6	9
Total.....	91	25	100	0	0	0	46	49	39	26
Elective courses:										
Massachusetts.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
Ohio.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Washington.....	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Wisconsin.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Total.....	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	3	0	0
Grade IX										
Required courses:										
California.....	0	0	0	0	1	37	0	7	9	2
Massachusetts.....	0	0	0	2	15	2	1	21	4	1
New Jersey.....	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	10	1	0
Ohio.....	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	7	1	1
Washington.....	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	5	2	1
Wisconsin.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	1	1
Others.....	1	0	0	0	1	2	10	16	2	9
Total.....	1	0	0	2	27	44	12	73	20	15
Elective courses:										
California.....	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	4	4	0
Massachusetts.....	0	0	0	0	6	1	0	5	1	0
New Jersey.....	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	4	0	0
Ohio.....	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	4	1	0
Washington.....	0	0	0	0	6	0	1	3	0	0
Wisconsin.....	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Others.....	0	0	0	0	11	0	2	2	0	0
Total.....	0	0	0	1	31	11	3	23	6	0

history, but in more than half the schools the work is divided between Grades VII and VIII; as a rule the early period of American history is taught in Grade VII, either for a full year or for one semester, and the later period is taught in Grade VIII, either for a semester or for a full year. Where American history is divided between the two years and is given either a two-semester or a two-year time allotment, the usual dividing line is 1865, at the close of the struggle over slavery. No small percentage of schools, however, offer a full

TABLE III  
GRADE PLACEMENT OF REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE SOCIAL-STUDIES  
COURSES IN 301 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1930

COURSE	GRADE VII		GRADE VIII		GRADE IX	
	Number of Schools in Which Course Is Required	Number of Schools in Which Course Is Elective	Number of Schools in Which Course Is Required	Number of Schools in Which Course Is Elective	Number of Schools in Which Course Is Required	Number of Schools in Which Course Is Elective
1. American history (entire).....	8	0	91	0	1	0
2. Early American history.....	121	0	25	0	0	0
3. Later American history.....	1	0	100	1	0	0
4. European backgrounds.....	21	1	0	0	2	1
5. Ancient history.....	0	0	0	1	27	31
6. World-history.....	0	0	0	0	44	11
7. Geography.....	151	0	46	2	12	3
8. Civics—community and vocational.....	21	0	49	3	73	23
9. Rugg's fusion course....	48	0	39	0	20	6
10. Local fusion courses....	29	0	26	0	15	0

and continuous year of work in American history, almost always in Grade VIII. Practically no courses in American history appear in Grade IX. It is significant that the outlines for practically all the courses in American history, no matter in which grade they are offered nor how much time is allowed them, emphasize social and industrial history, organized interpretatively, rather than political and military history, organized chronologically.

2. The course in European backgrounds of our national history, usually offered in Grade VI, is taught in Grade VII in twenty-two schools and is almost non-existent in Grades VIII and IX. The courses in Grade VII are about equally divided between a full year and a semester; they are, in all probability, offered only in schools

where the elementary-school program does not provide for the usual backgrounds course.

3. Ancient history still remains in Grade IX, especially in the schools of the eastern states. Of the fifty-eight schools offering this subject, slightly more than half consider it an elective, but it is an elective which usually becomes a requirement for college-preparatory pupils.

4. World-history in Grade IX makes a surprisingly large showing in the survey, but the emphasis given it is somewhat negated when it is considered that thirty-five of the forty-four schools requiring this course are in a single school system, that of Los Angeles.

5. Geography is required more frequently in Grade VII than any other course, appears frequently in Grade VIII, and occasionally in Grade IX. Judged by the textbooks most widely used as basic in the course, the work in geography is concerned primarily with "human life in its geographic setting," with social and regional geography rather than with place and physical geography. The situation with respect to geography, however, may not be revealed with complete fairness in the survey under consideration. Unless geography is taught as human geography, it is hardly a social study and may not have been so regarded by the school officials reporting. It may be that the natural-science aspects of geography are emphasized more widely than the survey leads one to believe.

6. Civics, the term being defined in the indefinite sense of the "new civics," appears in all three grades and is offered in conjunction with every conceivable program of courses. When offered in Grades VII and VIII, it is usually a one-semester course or is taught for only a few weeks in a course in history or geography and is somewhat elementary in nature. It is offered as a full-year course, usually required, in Grade IX in approximately a third of the schools reporting. In such cases the content is, as a rule, that included in the typical textbooks already referred to. Probably the survey has little accuracy in revealing the extent to which vocational civics is taught inasmuch as vocations are as frequently unconnected with the social studies as they are connected with them.

7. The data revealed regarding the status of fusion courses are significant. In Grade VII, seventy-seven schools offer a course



which seems to transcend in certain respects traditional subject lines. In Grade VIII sixty-five schools and in Grade IX thirty-five schools offer a required fusion course. In all three grades in over half these schools the fusion course offered is that of Harold Rugg, organized according to the "Social Science Pamphlets" or textbooks. The Rugg material is especially strong in California, which seems to be the center of a movement for fusion, although fusion courses appear in all sections of the country. Fusion courses not based on the Rugg material are local in nature, although frequently worked out with elaborate technique.

It may be seriously questioned whether all the courses purporting to be fusion courses are actually such. In fact, many educators contend that the Rugg textbooks are organized definitely along fairly traditional subject lines. This is not the place, however, to determine so large and difficult a question. Sufficient here to point out that almost a fourth of the 301 schools surveyed are attempting to find the way out of the dilemma and uncertainty in which the social studies in secondary schools now find themselves by breaking down the subject lines that have traditionally divided the social studies.

The survey reported in this article may be supplemented by the findings of a survey of the junior high schools in New York state made by Warren W. Coxe. Writing in the *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* for October, 1930, Coxe finds the junior high schools of New York state less inclined to experimentation and more subject to traditional influences than are the schools analyzed in the national survey just described. He reports that the purposes and the material of the social studies in the junior high school are traditional in character and finds that geography is almost universally taught in Grade VII, American history in Grade VIII, and civics in Grade IX. He finds geography more concerned with factual data than with its human implications and influences; history is largely social and industrial; and civics emphasizes "community life and community organizations." With regard to fusion courses he says:

While there may be courses which are known as social studies or social science, an examination of their content makes one realize that they are nothing more than the traditional geography, history, or civics. An attempt to treat social

studies as a unit proved unsuccessful, and it became necessary to discuss them under the traditional headings just mentioned.<sup>1</sup>

The data of the survey made by the writers do not indicate that the fusion controversy has been resolved so easily for the nation as a whole, and especially for the Pacific coast schools, as Coxe asserts it has been settled in the Empire State. Yet Coxe himself says, in another connection, that in a few instances "there is evidence of a reorganization of subject matter through such courses as general language, general mathematics, general science, social studies, etc."<sup>2</sup> The evidence of his survey, then, is not contradictory to that of this more general survey even though it does not emphasize in the state of New York the present importance of the controversy over fusion.

*Conclusions.*—The conclusions regarding the teaching of social studies in junior high schools in 1930 to be drawn from the data presented may be summarized as follows:

1. There is little agreement as to what social studies should be taught in junior high schools or as to how the selected material shall be organized for teaching purposes, although geography is still the most widely offered social study in Grade VII, American history in Grade VIII, and the "new civics" in Grade IX.

2. There is apparent throughout the country a well-organized and conscious desire to make the social studies a more vital and successful influence in civic education than they have been in the past, and there is a willingness to experiment and investigate, greater in some sections of the country than in others. There is a widespread tendency to try new methods of selecting and organizing social-studies materials; in many places this tendency leads to experimentation with so-called "fusion" courses.

3. When the study of 1930 is compared with the studies of 1921 and 1925 which have been summarized, it appears that interest in fusion courses is greater today than it has been before, even during the unsettled years of the past decade. Fusion courses, however, vary greatly in character and merit, and there is little to indicate whether the idea of fusion is a basic advance or only another of the fads which come and go with succeeding generations.

<sup>1</sup> Warren W. Coxe, "When Is a School a Junior High School?" *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, V (October, 1930), 77.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 74.

## A TECHNIQUE FOR EVALUATING GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

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The past fifteen years have witnessed the expenditure of a vast amount of energy in research looking toward the development and improvement of techniques for measuring the instructional activity of the schools. Measurement of activities connected with guidance, on the other hand, seems a concept not yet fully formed in our minds. Presumably the youth of the guidance movement accounts for the absence of thought about the evaluation of programs of guidance; we are still so occupied with the establishment of procedures of guidance that we have not yet attained the critical attitude which engenders attempts at objective measurement of results. Nevertheless, the necessity of such evaluation should be apparent to all workers in the field of guidance. The soundest and surest progress of the guidance movement depends on proof of its worth. If its proponents are sincere, they will welcome tests of the instrumentalities through which the function is performed in order that they may know which to recommend and which to cast out or to modify.

It is the purpose of this article to illustrate a technique for objective evaluation of certain activities used in guidance. Preliminary, however, to the description of either the activities or the method of measurement should be stated the following fundamental assumptions which underlie them. First, guidance is here considered to be the assistance given pupils in their choice of educational and vocational careers to the end that their selections may be in line with their abilities. Second, in accord with our democratic ideals, it is recognized that guidance is informative and advisory, not prescriptive nor dictatorial, that choice really rests in the individual, the

school seeking to condition the choice by contributing pertinent facts and experiences. Third, the effectiveness of a program of guidance is to be judged by the degree to which it produces harmony between the aspirations and the abilities of the pupils.

*The guidance procedures employed.*—With the above principles in mind the writers took certain steps during the school year 1929-30 to induce the pupils in the eleventh and twelfth grades in the Windber High School, Windber, Pennsylvania, to give reasoned consideration to their educational and vocational futures. In September every pupil filled out a blank which called for the specific occupation that he planned to enter or, if he was undecided, the occupation which he had been most seriously considering, together with a statement of the three main reasons for his choice. The pupil was also asked to state whether he planned to continue his education after graduation from high school and, if so, to check the type of institution he expected to attend, such as college, university, normal school, business college, technical school, or special school.

Through the autumn months a testing and measuring program was carried out in order to accumulate the essential data for that self-analysis required for intelligent vocational and educational choosing. First, the 79 Seniors and the 122 Juniors were ranked, each class separately, according to marks earned in major subjects since they had entered the ninth grade. Then the tests enumerated on the test-record card given on page 510 were administered, and the median score and each pupil's standing in class were computed for each test. The superintendent, who was directly in charge of the program of guidance, then announced that during a certain hour each day pupils could visit him and talk over the results of the tests. There was no hesitancy on the part of the pupils; they had regarded the tests as most interesting challenges and were eager to learn their scores and the significance of the scores. The ready response of practically the entire group of 201 pupils was excellent testimony to the efficacy of this method of motivating interviews. These first consultations ranged from ten to thirty minutes in length. As each pupil reported, he was handed a card, which is reproduced on the following page.

The measurements of ability thus placed before the pupil formed

the basis of a conversation which brought into consideration a comparison of the pupil's capacities and limitations with the requirements of the educational and vocational future he had planned. He was induced to think about the degree of general academic ability called for by his choice and the measure of such ability which he

## TEST-RECORD CARD

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Choice of occupation 1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

Number in class \_\_\_\_\_ Class standing in major subjects \_\_\_\_\_

Reading references recommended \_\_\_\_\_

Test	Median Score of Class	Your Score	Standing in Class
Otis Group Intelligence Scale.....			
Columbia Research Bureau English Test..			
Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Tests.....			
Sones-Harry High-School Achievement Test:			
Part I, Language and Literature.....			
Part II, Mathematics.....			
Part III, Natural Science.....			
Part IV, Social Studies.....			

possessed. In case his vocational aspiration involved special capacity in English expression, in mathematics, in science, or in mechanics, that fact was brought to his attention, and he saw that the card gave him pertinent data for self-estimate in those abilities. Sometimes one or more of the pupil's test papers were examined during the interview, and their implications for vocational selection were commented on. The pupil's questions about the training and ability required for various occupations were frequently answered by referring him to specific readings in the library. A notably large num-

ber of these eleventh-grade and twelfth-grade pupils availed themselves of the opportunity to read occupational literature and to consult the pamphlets and catalogues pertinent to their proposed educational choices.

At the conclusion of the first round of interviews several group lessons in guidance were prepared by the superintendent and were presented by home-room teachers during the weekly periods devoted to guidance. During one of these lessons each pupil was given a mimeographed copy of a bar diagram prepared by Dean Johnston, of the University of Minnesota.<sup>1</sup> In his diagram the graduates of the high schools in St. Paul and Minneapolis over a period of three years are divided into ten levels (bars) according to scholarship as represented by school marks. Dark and light shadings on each level show the number of pupils who entered the University of Minnesota, the number who succeeded, and the number who failed. The home-room teachers drew from their groups in informal discussion statements of the following facts observed in the chart. First, the students who entered the University of Minnesota were practically a random sampling of their high-school graduating classes as far as their scholarship records were concerned. Second, success in the university showed a considerable correlation with success in high school although it was to be noted that even a few students in the highest tenth of the graduating class failed in the university. Third, few students in the lower half of the high-school class achieved success in the university; in fact, only in the two upper tenths did more than half the university entrants succeed. Fourth, many of the brightest high-school pupils did not continue their schooling—a fact which should probably be interpreted as a social loss. When these eleventh-grade and twelfth-grade pupils fully understood the chart and its implications, they were encouraged to turn to their own test-record cards and compute, from their “class standing in major subjects,” the tenth of the class in which they belonged. The ensuing discussion revolved around the congruity and the incongruity of analogy from the case of the high-school graduates in Johnston’s study to their own cases.

<sup>1</sup> J. B. Johnston, “Predicting College Success for the High-School Senior,” *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, VI (April, 1928), 290.

As the basis of another group lesson in guidance two charts in mimeographed form were furnished the pupils. One exhibited by bar diagrams the medians and the interquartile ranges of the intelligence quotients of eight groups of Senior boys in Illinois high schools.<sup>1</sup> The boys were those who had stated as their vocational choices occupations in the following fields: clerical work, teaching, skilled manufacturing and mechanical work, medicine, engineering, law, skilled transportation work, and trade. Although occupations in the professional field, in the business and clerical world, and in skilled trades were thus represented, the chart showed but slight differences in general intelligence and no rational trend in the differences. The second chart was based on Proctor's portrayal<sup>2</sup> of the general intelligence of men engaged in occupations of five levels: unskilled labor, semi-skilled labor, skilled labor, business-clerical vocations, professions. His data were based on the tests given the army during the World War and were presented as the median and quartile Army Alpha scores of each group. The chart made it evident to the pupils that in real life considerable differences exist in the general-intelligence levels of skilled tradesmen, business-clerical workers, and professional men even though there is some overlapping. These two charts were presented on one page so that their contrasts might be brought out more clearly as well as their implications for educational and vocational choice.

At the conclusion of the special lessons in guidance the pupils were encouraged to interview their home-room teachers or to make appointments with the superintendent for additional interviews concerning their plans for the future. Throughout these activities it will be perceived that an effort was made to achieve objectivity. Not only do objective procedures lend themselves to description, but they constitute the essential element in any guidance program which is to rise above the level of fortune-telling. The forging and the em-

<sup>1</sup> This chart was adapted from Figure 2 in Charles W. Odell, *Conservation of Intelligence in Illinois High Schools*, p. 40. Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 22. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXII, No. 25. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1925.

<sup>2</sup> William Martin Proctor, *The Use of Psychological Tests in the Educational and Vocational Guidance of High School Pupils*, Fig. 3, p. 41. Journal of Educational Research Monographs, No. 1. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1921.



ployment of objective instruments of guidance is a condition essential to the dignifying of the profession of guidance.

*The method of evaluation.*—In May the pupils were again asked to fill out the questionnaire regarding their vocational and educational plans to which they had given response in September. The reason for this step was the assumption that, if the guidance program had taken effect, aspirations would have changed to correspond more nearly to abilities. The method of measuring the guidance program was, therefore, to compare the aspirations of the pupils in September with their abilities, to compare the aspirations of the pupils in May with their abilities, and to determine whether the latter comparison represented closer relations than the former. In the degree to which pupils had improved their selections of education and vocation so as to harmonize more closely with their potentialities, the program of guidance might be said to have functioned satisfactorily.

*The findings.*—The first illustrative items of evidence to be presented are the data exhibited in Figures 1 and 2. These involve no measure of the ability of the pupils, but they do indicate significant changes in the pupils' ambitions. Between September and May the numbers of pupils planning on college training and professional careers were reduced, while the proportions planning to enter skilled trades or to go to business college were augmented. Since the median intelligence quotient of this group of 201 Juniors and Seniors was 104.1, the middle 50 per cent ranging between 95.6 and 110.9, it may be judged that the revision of educational and vocational plans was well advised, provided, of course, that the right pupils changed their minds.

Evidence on the latter point is shown in Table I and in Figure 3. The pupils who in May expressed the intention of attending college were of appreciably higher mentality than the group who had been of similar mind in September. Especially satisfying is the decision of all pupils with intelligence quotients between 80 and 95 to give up college ambitions. To be considered in this connection is the fact that the total number of pupils who had these ambitions in May was about one-fifth less than the number in September, as was shown in Figure 2. Apparently, the desirable change from September to May may be attributed almost entirely to the subtraction of pupils of low

mental capacity and very little to the addition of pupils of high mental capacity. This view is borne out by a comparison of the distribution of intelligence quotients of the entire 201 students with the

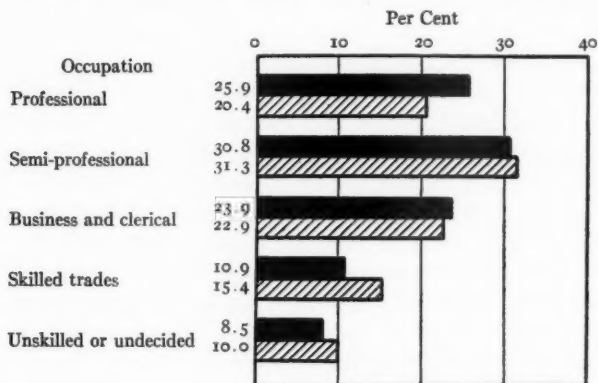


FIG. 1.—Percentages of pupils expecting to enter various occupations (black bars, before guidance; shaded bars, after guidance).

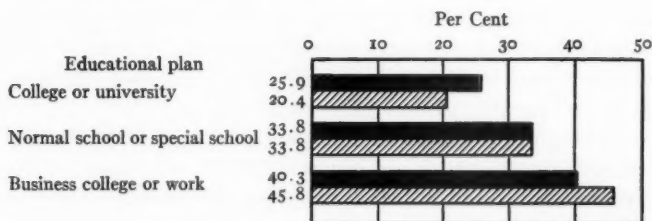


FIG. 2.—Percentages of pupils intending to go to college or university, normal school or special school, and business college or work (black bars, before guidance; shaded bars, after guidance).

distributions graphically represented in Figure 3; the comparison showed that whereas eleven pupils from the lowest quarter declared in September an intention to attend college, only one from that quarter expressed such an intention in May.

Table II exhibits data corresponding somewhat closely to those in Table I and Figure 3, but a different measure of capacity is used, namely, rank in class, which was computed on the basis of marks

earned in major high-school subjects. Authorities are somewhat agreed that this is the best single indication of fitness for college which we now possess. Study of the table indicates that the Seniors who were planning in September to go to college were decidedly a random sampling of the class; the distribution of the corresponding

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS  
OF PUPILS WHO IN SEPTEMBER BEFORE GUIDANCE AND  
IN MAY AFTER GUIDANCE EXPRESSED INTENTION OF  
ENTERING COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

Measure	Intelligence Quotient before Guidance (September)	Intelligence Quotient after Guidance (May)
Lowest intelligence quotient...	80.0	95.0
First quartile.....	100.0	106.5
Median.....	108.1	111.4
Third quartile.....	116.0	118.8
Highest intelligence quotient...	135.0	135.0

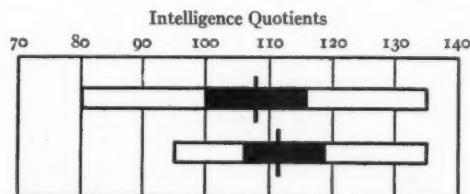


FIG. 3.—Distribution of intelligence quotients, before guidance (upper bar) and after guidance (lower bar) of pupils intending to enter college or university, showing range, middle 50 per cent, and median.

group in May shows considerable change favorable to the program of guidance, though it is to be lamented that more of the best pupils in the class could not have been induced to seek college or university training. The Juniors evinced better judgment in the college decision at the beginning of the year than did the Seniors, and they made an appreciable improvement in their judgment during the year.

At this point it is appropriate to compare these two high-school classes with the class which graduated from the same high school in 1929. The latter, a class of 108 pupils, may be termed an "unguided"

group. The median of the ranks in high-school class of those who entered college was 55.0—a fact which may be interpreted to mean

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTIONS, ACCORDING TO CLASS RANK, OF PUPILS  
WHO IN SEPTEMBER BEFORE GUIDANCE AND IN MAY  
AFTER GUIDANCE EXPRESSED INTENTION OF ENTERING  
COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

CLASS RANK	SENIORS*		JUNIORS†	
	Sep- tember	May	Sep- tember	May
1-4 . . . . .	1	2	3	4
5-9 . . . . .	1	1	3	1
10-14 . . . . .	1	1	4	4
15-19 . . . . .	0	1	0	0
20-24 . . . . .	2	1	3	3
25-29 . . . . .	1	1	1	1
30-34 . . . . .	3	2	1	1
35-39 . . . . .	1	1	1	1
40-44 . . . . .	1	1	2	1
45-49 . . . . .	0	0	4	3
50-54 . . . . .	1	0	0	2
55-59 . . . . .	1	0	1	0
60-64 . . . . .	3	0	1	1
65-69 . . . . .	2	2	1	1
70-74 . . . . .	1	0	1	1
75-79 . . . . .	1	1	0	0
80-84 . . . . .	0	0	1	0
85-89 . . . . .	0	0	0	0
90-94 . . . . .	0	0	1	0
95-99 . . . . .	0	0	1	0
100-104 . . . . .	0	0	1	3
105-109 . . . . .	0	0	1	0
110-114 . . . . .	0	0	0	0
115-119 . . . . .	0	0	0	0
120-122 . . . . .	0	0	1	0
Total . . . . .	20	14	32	27
Percentage in up- per half of class . .	50	71	72	78
Percentage in lower half of class	50	29	28	22

\* The total number of Seniors was 79.

† The total number of Juniors was 122.

that the college group was virtually a random selection from the whole class. From the highest quarter of the class, 24 per cent entered college, whereas from the lowest quarter 27 per cent entered college. Testimony to the validity of class rank in high school as an index to college ability is to be seen in the fact that all but two of

those from the highest quarter maintained averages of C or better as college Freshmen, while none from the lowest quarter were able to achieve that level of scholarship. Other measures of the ability and aspirations of the class of 1929 were not available, but this one alone is significant. Its citation here supports the assumption of this

TABLE III

SUMMARIES OF SCORES ON TWO SECTIONS OF SONES-HARRY HIGH-SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT TEST MADE BY PUPILS INTENDING TO FOLLOW OCCUPATIONS REQUIRING MUCH AND LITTLE MATHEMATICAL ABILITY AND BY PUPILS INTENDING TO FOLLOW OCCUPATIONS REQUIRING MUCH AND LITTLE SPECIAL KNOWLEDGE OF NATURAL SCIENCE

MEASURE	SCORES OF PUPILS CHOOSING OCCUPATIONS REQUIRING MUCH ABILITY OR KNOWLEDGE		SCORES OF PUPILS CHOOSING OCCUPATIONS REQUIRING LITTLE ABILITY OR KNOWLEDGE	
	September	May	September	May
Mathematics				
Low score.....	5.0	5.0	0.0	0.0
Third quartile.....	20.3	19.6	12.1	12.1
Median.....	29.4	33.1	18.4	18.2
First quartile.....	42.9	44.1	27.3	26.5
High score.....	59.0	59.0	64.0	64.0
Natural Science				
Low score.....	10.0	10.0	5.0	5.0
Third quartile.....	24.4	25.7	23.2	22.4
Median.....	31.3	31.9	28.2	28.6
First quartile.....	37.3	37.6	35.2	34.1
High score.....	64.0	64.0	59.0	59.0

study that the changes of intention in the classes of 1930 and 1931 were due to the brief program of guidance employed.

The comparison of capacity, as measured by the Sones-Harry High-School Achievement Test, and educational plans before and after guidance showed a shift of pupils similar to that already commented on in connection with the measures of intelligence and class rank. The aspirations of the pupils were also compared with their achievement on two sections of the Sones-Harry test, and summaries of these comparisons are shown in Table III. The table shows that the pupils choosing occupations requiring much mathematical abil-

ity exhibited a wide range of that ability both in September and May. At the same time, they possessed considerably more of such ability than the group choosing occupations requiring little mathematical ability. There was no marked change between September and May. The table also indicates that pupils choosing occupations involving special knowledge of natural science—such as nurse, electrician, mining engineer, aviator, landscape gardener, electrical engineer, and teachers of science, shop, physical education, and domestic science—made their choice with little reference to their possession of that qualification. They represented a wide variation in September and were very little superior to those not choosing such occupations. Comparison of the September and May figures discloses the absence of any observable effect resulting from the program of guidance.

*Concluding remarks.*—The procedures of guidance described in the first part of this article may commend themselves to the reader for their objectivity, for their consistency with our democratic pretensions, and for their enlistment of the pupil's own reasoning processes in the solution of his problems. The measurement of their value revealed that to some degree they were effective. The nature of their beneficial results, however, was primarily negative. That is, some pupils rightly reasoned that the ambitions which they had cherished were beyond their powers of realization and they therefore gave up those ambitions; others, possessing capacity probably more than adequate for the rôles to which they aspired, did not change their decisions. As for refinement of their occupational ambitions to the end that their choices might represent a closer adjustment between talents and vocational requirements, the measurements of ability in mathematics and science indicated virtually no progress.

These few coarse evaluations of the procedures of guidance employed help to make it clear that guidance is not performed in a day nor in a few months. Conscious attention to the function must begin long before the last two years in high school even if we consider only those pupils who are certain to graduate. The lack of positive results with the group here studied may be partly attributed to the fact that many of the pupils were pursuing the commercial curriculum and had advanced too far in their preparation for certain occupational

goals to reconsider their decisions. A positive program of guidance, designed to achieve the most refined adjustment of the individual to the opportunities within the school and to the opportunities of life-work, demands that guidance be thought of as a function to be carried on co-ordinately with the development function.

The primary purpose in presenting this study is to illustrate techniques for appraising guidance activities. The assumption of the evaluation procedure here employed is that the object of guidance is to help pupils make better choices. A valid measurement, then, is one which answers this question: "Do high-school pupils make better choices as the result of a program of guidance?" Counting the wheels in a machine set up for the purpose of guidance or judging a program of guidance by means of a score card is superficial; it does not bear on the fundamental question. Only by testing for basic evidence that guidance has been effected can the worth of a program of guidance be determined. The possibility of extending and refining the simple tests employed in this study seems unlimited.



## POSSIBILITIES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL JOURNALISM

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A crisp, new book with its distinctive odor and its bright, unspoiled pages was an object of pleasure and wonderment to the writer as a boy of thirteen. Indeed, one of the keenest joys attending the opening of school in the autumn had its being in the fragrant mysteries of those smooth and shining pages. The pleasure was not always unmitigated, however. The new grammar book, for instance, was void of charm except for its newness. Hopefully the boy would scan its contents for something that would strike a responsive chord; but in the face of the long array of natural enemies bearing hated and dreaded names—gerund, pluperfect, subjunctive, attribute complement, participial phrase, *ad infinitum*—the bottom would drop out of his bright world, and with the stubborn optimism of boyhood he would seek greener pastures elsewhere.

The writer strongly suspects that boyhood has not changed much in the last score of years and that the opening of the school year still brings the same anticipatory glow at the sight and touch of a new book. During the years between, teachers and makers of textbooks have come to look with more sympathetic and comprehending eyes on the interests and needs of childhood. A boy's pleasure in a new book is today much less likely to be troubled by stirrings of his prophetic soul. Yet, perhaps little has been learned after all. Or can it be that no one has been able to devise a less painful way of grafting onto the growing boy the insinuating graces of English grammar? Whatever be the case, the writer finds before him two textbooks in junior high school English, products of the last five years, with just such an array of chapter and lesson headings as would quench the spirits of the most dauntless. Here are a few lessons from Part I: "Parts of Speech," "Subject and Predicate," "Predicate Word and Object," "Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases," "Adjectives and Ad-

jective Phrases." While much less formidable than the textbook of a generation ago, it would nevertheless take an ingenious Tom Sawyer to transform it into anything resembling fun.

With such an undisguised and unsavory diet for junior high school boys and girls, is there any wonder that one hears on every side the melancholy wailings of the high-school English teachers, who find Bessie and Tom inarticulate, "unable, mind you, to write a decent English sentence"? Is it strange that uncomplimentary remarks are made about the qualifications of the teachers Bessie and Tom have had? Yet English is not dull, nor are junior high school children dull. Whenever sufficient motivation has entered the English work, children have written gladly and with increasing ability. An experience in point is recounted by Evaline Harrington, who turned to news-writing for the needed motivation. She learned, as many others have learned, that "when boys and girls who have no great gift for writing find that they can learn to form clear news items in a straightforward way and have them printed, they think they can write, and they *can* within limits."<sup>1</sup>

It is to be regretted that more junior high schools have not discovered the possibilities of the newspaper for teaching the intricacies of grammar and sentence structure. Many testimonials are given to the efficacy of all forms of student publications, of the newspaper in particular. Representative of the expressions are the following quotations, gleaned from accounts of experiments and general discussions of the subject:

It spurred each one to write better English than he had ever been known to write before.<sup>2</sup>

I raised my requirements. Undaunted they sought neglected handbooks.<sup>3</sup>

I expected to find appreciation of any change of plan but was totally unprepared for the wave of enthusiasm. . . . nearly three times as many themes were written.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Evaline Harrington, "News-Writing as an Asset to the English Course," *English Journal*, XIV (October, 1925), 616.

<sup>2</sup> Charmian Johnson and Carrie Eger, "Journalistic Activities in the Junior High School," *Educational Method*, IX (December, 1929), 153.

<sup>3</sup> P. E. Neumann, "Teaching Composition Plus," *English Journal*, XVIII (June, 1929), 500.

<sup>4</sup> Margaret M. Sleezer, "A Truly Democratic School Paper," *English Journal*, X (April, 1921), 195, 200.

The school paper is the motivating influence in all of the school work.<sup>1</sup>

The journalism students are sufferers together . . . and they are champions together.<sup>2</sup>

The journalistic interest is a bait that will entice into composition work many a student who turns up his nose at all other work.<sup>3</sup>

A more detailed analysis of some of the benefits, advantages, and possibilities found to obtain in junior high school journalism may be included here with some profit. Nine years spent in teaching English and directing high-school and junior high school publications have convinced the writer that such claims as are here included, the synthesis of a number of recent articles by people engaged in teaching English in junior high schools, are modest and just. While the temptation to recount one's own experience is peculiarly insistent, such experience, the writer feels, could hardly carry the weight of the cumulative discoveries of a large number of able teachers and experimenters.

To give training in journalism, most of the commentators insist, is not the primary purpose of the junior high school newspaper. More important appear to be purposes centering in the motivation of composition. These purposes are stated variously but may be expressed briefly somewhat as follows: (1) to furnish a means of teaching the fundamentals of correct English; (2) to afford an effective medium for teaching the value of accuracy, clarity, brevity, and directness; and (3) to provide a type of material that is well adapted to the powers of writers of junior high school age. That the junior high school newspaper, where it has the benefit of judicious direction, is serving these functions is attested by the lay teacher as well as by the journalist in the junior high school field. Of course, the school as a whole is benefited in full measure only when the newspaper becomes the product of a maximum number of pupils.

Many purposes having no direct relation to the motivation of composition are mentioned, such as to give the school news, to give

<sup>1</sup> Mary Fontaine Laidley, "Composition Interests of Junior High School Pupils," *English Journal*, XIV (March, 1925), 202.

<sup>2</sup> Bessie M. Huff, "Journalism, a Socializing Agency," *English Journal*, XII (February, 1923), 136.

<sup>3</sup> Grant M. Hyde, "What the High-School Teacher of Journalism Can and Should Do," *English Journal*, XVII (November, 1928), 723.

pupils opportunity to know fellow-students, to create spirit and foster morale, to encourage worth-while activities, to serve as a medium of expression for student opinion, to furnish means of conveying to others a knowledge of individual and school endeavors and achievements, and to promote higher standards of scholarship. Valuable traits of character are frequently mentioned as outgrowths of the newspaper work. One writer observes, "They were learning courtesy, tact, the value of promptness and, above all, the necessity for accuracy."<sup>1</sup> The companionship involved in working on a school newspaper is often listed among valuable socializing influences. Co-operativeness is a direct outgrowth. Whether the paper is edited by an appointed staff or by an elected staff, by a class or by a whole school under the direction of teachers, the sense of working together for the common interests of all is strong. One cannot read many junior high school newspapers without being impressed by the general wholesomeness of living and thinking reflected in the columns. One comes to feel that not the least of the values of school journalism, from the seventh grade to the twelfth (and in college), is to create a taste for a more wholesome fare than that which is fed the adult through the columns of the average metropolitan daily on the theory that his interests run to the sensational, the scandalous, and the criminal. Better newspapers will come when citizens are educated from early school years to demand the best elements of conservative journalism. These various benefits to English and the art of living are derived, not alone from writing for the newspaper, but also from reading it and sharing through it the achievements, the triumphs, the humor, and the pathos of junior high school life.

Exponents of the older methods and the traditional materials in junior high school composition will contend that there is nothing essentially new or different in the themes written for the school newspaper. However, examination of the content of the average junior high school newspaper or the compositions prepared with the hope that they would be considered good enough for publication will convince one that many of the elements of the old theme assignments are missing. For instance, an article appearing in a junior high school paper bore the heading "Trophy Case Nearly Full," and

<sup>1</sup> P. E. Neumann, *op. cit.*, p. 500.

the opening sentence read, "The beautiful glass case in the main hallway by the entrance is nearly full of cups and trophies won by past athletic teams of Memorial." To how many teachers of composition would this subject have occurred as appropriate for a theme? "The beautiful glass case . . . nearly full" is something that has aroused the pupil's pride, and he has written briefly, using the words that are most apt, most expressive, simple, and charged with feeling. Yet he is not discussing his emotions, as he was all too frequently asked to do under the old régime, nor is he describing at length a scene which he is much better qualified to enjoy than to reproduce exactly or imaginatively on paper. He is not asked to make sentences using certain words, such as "beautiful." Had he been asked to do so, he would probably have written, "She is beautiful," venturing no further for fear of errors. For the newspaper he writes simply about athletics, parties, plays, prizes, assemblies, and often about the simple moralities—thrift, honesty, fair play.<sup>1</sup> If his product lacks imagination or a sense of beauty, must one be concerned? Imagination will develop and a sense of beauty will grow out of the prosaic soul of the pubescent with the coming of the sweet wonders of the "teens." It is enough during junior high school years, some will say, that the interest in the work carry the young writers over the hurdles of grammar and sentence structure and develop in them habits of clarity, directness, and brevity of expression.

If a natural aversion to anything that savors of composition and grammar can be somehow miraculously transfused into a glowing pride in one's writing, who is there to blame the teacher for expressing his enthusiasm? When a pupil once sublimely indifferent to "ain't" and "I seen" is aroused to heated controversy over the inclusion of a much less obvious error in the columns of his school paper, is there not reason to suppose that learning of a vital sort is taking place? Here is part of the editorial answer to appreciative but critical young readers who have in the home-room column expressed wonder that "received" should be the "pet hoodoo" of their newspaper.

There are many words in the English language that are tricky in their spelling. When student reporters misspell these words, it should be the duty

<sup>1</sup> Mary Fontaine Laidley, *op. cit.*, p. 207.

of the teachers, who are supposed to pass on the item, to point out all of the errors for the good of the student as well as to make a better appearing *Doughboy*.<sup>1</sup>

Something important has happened when pupils point to teachers and ask for more help, when pride compels them to learn to do well what it has seemed they did not care to do at all. Doubtless, more than ever before, the teacher will have to prepare himself for a special type of service. If he is to have encouraging results, he must have some training in journalism and a real liking for the work. Beyond that, he should be enthusiastic about its projects, should have a keen understanding of the interests of early adolescence, and should have ability to direct and co-ordinate the work of a group of pupils. Personal qualities of tact, patience, and humor are, of course, essential.

Hopeful signs for all who believe that journalism can furnish the much-needed motivation in junior high school composition are found in the steadily increasing number of junior high school publications, in the nature and variety of experiments in whole school and class reporting, and in the tendency to make the journalistic work part of the curriculum. Reporting local news for city dailies<sup>2</sup> and editing a school page for a local daily<sup>3</sup> are among the types of activities fostered by junior high school teachers. Some of the later textbooks, such as the Miller and Paul *English Essentials for Junior High Schools*,<sup>4</sup> devote a number of lessons to issuing a newspaper and to newspaper writing. It is a safe prediction that with increasing recognition of its possibilities journalism in junior high schools will develop even more rapidly in the next decade than it has during the decade just past.

<sup>1</sup> *The Doughboy* (Memorial Junior High School, San Diego, California), November 12, 1930, p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> P. E. Neumann, *op. cit.*, pp. 499-501.

<sup>3</sup> Charmian Johnson and Carrie Eger, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

<sup>4</sup> William D. Miller and Harry G. Paul, *English Essentials for Junior High Schools*, Book Two, pp. 46-59. Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1926.

## INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

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The expansion of the high-school curriculum and the enrichment of high-school courses in order to meet more adequately all the objectives of secondary education raise numerous questions with regard to the place and importance of some of the newer courses. There is a growing conviction among school administrators that many of the so-called "extra-curriculum" activities should be provided for in the regular school program and due recognition given to their educational value. Consequently, in an increasing number of schools much time and effort are being devoted to work in instrumental music. Classes in band and orchestra have a place in the daily program; regular high-school credit is given in these courses; and a powerful incentive is provided through local, state, and national contests. What does this trend mean to the individual pupil? What relation does it bear to the high-school curriculum and organization?

The data of this article were secured from the experience of the Hammond High School for the five school years 1925-26 to 1929-30. This is a typical mid-western school with an enrolment of 1,609 for the year 1929-30. During the years studied 587 pupils were members of its bands and orchestras. The work was conducted in regular classes as a part of the daily program, and regular credit was given. These organizations were under the leadership of the same directors for the entire period, and both bands and orchestras participated in local, state, and national contests.

The relation between a pupil's participation in instrumental-music activities and his general success in high-school work is naturally one of the first considerations. Table I shows the distribution of the marks of members of the band and orchestra in general scholarship for the five-year period. The relatively high percentage of failure (a mark of E) in general scholarship among band and orchestra pupils is chiefly a result of the large number of weak pupils



among those who graduated in 1927 and in 1928. In 1929 and in 1930 the failure rate diminished to 2.0 per cent and 2.6 per cent, respectively. The marked contrast between the failure rates in 1927 and 1928 and the failure rates in 1929 and 1930 is probably caused in large measure by two facts. First, the novelty of new courses accompanied by an attractive contest feature naturally drew a large number of chronic misfits. Second, the setting-up of higher standards through strenuous competition and eligibility requirements re-

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF 587 PUPILS IN INSTRUMENTAL-MUSIC CLASSES ACCORDING  
TO MARKS RECEIVED IN GENERAL SCHOLARSHIP

CLASSIFICATION	A		B		C		D		E		TOTAL	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
1926 graduates.....	0	0.0	7	26.9	10	38.5	7	26.9	2	7.7	26	100.0
1927 graduates.....	0	0.0	5	17.9	11	39.3	2	7.1	10	35.7	28	100.0
1928 graduates.....	1	2.2	5	11.1	19	42.3	10	22.2	10	22.2	45	100.0
1929 graduates.....	2	4.0	10	20.0	27	54.0	10	20.0	1	2.0	50	100.0
1930 graduates.....	2	2.6	14	18.2	49	63.6	10	13.0	2	2.6	77	100.0
Pupils withdrawing be- fore graduation.....	3	3.6	5	6.0	29	35.0	16	19.3	30	36.1	83	100.0
Undergraduates.....	11	4.0	42	15.1	143	51.4	49	17.6	33	11.9	278	100.0
Total.....	19	3.2	88	15.0	288	49.1	104	17.7	88	15.0	587	100.0

sulted in weeding out the weaker pupils during the later two years. Among the undergraduates remaining in school in 1930, however, the failure rate was 11.9 per cent, or almost twice that of the school as a whole. The percentage of failure for the school as a whole for the second semester of 1929-30 was 5.9, and the distribution of other school marks was as follows: A, 8.3 per cent; B, 23.1 per cent; C, 41.2 per cent; and D, 21.5 per cent. The general scholarship average for the entire music group was 82.48 per cent; the average of the music marks, 86.59 per cent. The passing mark is 75 per cent.<sup>1</sup> The correlation between the general-scholarship marks and the music marks in high school was found to be  $.252 \pm .0261$ . This correlation is perhaps considerably lower than that between the marks

<sup>1</sup> The percentage values of the letter marks are as follows: A, 95-100; B, 90-94; C, 80-89; D, 75-79; E, below 75.

in an academic subject, such as English or history, and the general-scholarship marks. Although the general-scholarship average is somewhat below the average in music and although the failure rate is somewhat higher among instrumental-music pupils than that in the school as a whole, the data indicate a distinct improvement in scholarship and a fairly normal distribution of marks during the last two years of the study.

A further study was made of the college records of 52 high-school graduates from this group of 587 music pupils. It was found that 23 pupils, or 44.2 per cent, made college averages lower than their high-school averages and that 29 pupils, or 55.8 per cent, made college averages equal to, or higher than, their high-school averages. The correlation between their general scholarship in high school and their general scholarship in college was  $.557 \pm .0655$ . The college failure rate of this group of 52 pupils was found to be 6.12 per cent as compared with a failure rate of 4.55 per cent for all graduates of this high school who attended college during the last two years of the study. These differences, however, would hardly warrant the conclusion that high-school graduates who have given considerable time and attention to instrumental music are thereby seriously handicapped in college.

In an industrial community with a large foreign and transient population the proportion of withdrawals from high school is very large. A comparison of the withdrawals from high school among instrumental-music pupils and the withdrawals among the student body as a whole would indicate the holding power of the instrumental-music courses. In the school as a whole for the five years 1925-26 to 1929-30, of a total enrolment of 5,996 pupils, 978 pupils, or 16.3 per cent, withdrew before graduation. Among the 587 pupils taking instrumental music, 83 pupils, or 14.1 per cent, withdrew before graduation. These percentages indicate that the holding power of the music courses is slightly above the average. Several individuals have remained in high school for nine or ten semesters in order to continue work in the musical organizations. Table II shows the number of semesters spent in high-school music classes by 226 graduates. Eighty per cent were members of these classes for four semesters or more and almost 50 per cent for six semesters or more.

An important consideration from the standpoint of the vocational objective is the fact that forty-nine of these music pupils have been able to make practical use of their training by securing either part-time or full-time employment as musicians. At least twenty pupils have been found to possess unusual talent, so that their musical training will insure them a profitable vocation or exceptional achievement in musical art. A few boys have become solo artists

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION OF 226 MEMBERS OF INSTRUMENTAL-MUSIC  
CLASSES GRADUATING IN 1926-30 ACCORDING TO  
NUMBER OF SEMESTERS SPENT IN MUSIC CLASSES

Number of Semesters Spent in Music Classes	Number of Graduates	Percentage of Graduates
1.....	5	2.2
2.....	24	10.6
3.....	16	7.1
4.....	40	17.7
5.....	29	12.8
6.....	43	19.0
7.....	25	11.1
8.....	28	12.4
9.....	13	5.8
10.....	3	1.3
Total.....	226	100.0

in well-known musical organizations, and two girls are at present members of the Chicago Woman's Symphony Orchestra.

The opportunity for girls in instrumental-music courses seems to be equal to that for boys. Of the 587 pupils considered in this study, 214 were girls. They proved their ability to master instruments of all types. Even in playing the larger brass instruments, the girls frequently outstripped the boys. Adam P. Lesinsky is authority for the following statement regarding the opportunity for girls in instrumental music: "Now that instrumental music in the public schools is recognized by all progressive educators as a part of the regular curriculum and not an outside activity, there should be no discrimination made between boys and girls."<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Adam P. Lesinsky, "Give the Girls a Chance," *School Musician*, I (October, 1930), 7.

The problems and difficulties to be faced in the successful administration of instrumental-music work require careful planning and co-operative effort. A thoroughly competent director is the first requirement. He must be not only a musician but a teacher and an administrator. He must understand the importance of other departments as well as that of his own, and he must be able to secure the respect and co-operation of the entire school. The problem of adequate financial support is serious. Large sums of money for equipment and contest trips must be raised through concerts, plays, and public subscription. The large amount of time required for practice and rehearsals may affect seriously the pupils' work in other departments. This outcome must be prevented as far as possible by careful organization and planning of the pupils' daily schedules. Music practice and rehearsal rooms should be as far removed as possible from regular classrooms. A separate building for this work would furnish the ideal arrangement. In the public appearances of the high-school musical organizations, care should be taken to maintain amicable relations with the local musicians' union.

No school activities have so powerful an influence as have the musical organizations in bringing together the school and the home and in securing the interest and co-operation of the community. Bands and orchestras appear in community gatherings of a civic nature, draw large numbers of patrons to the building for school concerts, and assist in dramatic and athletic contests. In order to meet the expenses of participation in the national contests in 1930, the Chamber of Commerce of Hammond, civic clubs, and various other organizations in the city raised by popular subscription a special fund of \$7,600. The response on the part of the community was prompt and generous.

Reference has already been made to the vocational value of this work. Of even greater importance is its contribution to the leisure-time objective in secondary education. The mastery of a musical instrument, a knowledge and appreciation of the best in music, and the spirit of co-operation and team work developed in these school organizations afford a training and a background that will insure in large measure a profitable and wholesome use of leisure time.

The data collected in this study show that both in high school and

in college the scholarship records of instrumental-music pupils were somewhat lower than those of pupils in general. The college failure rate was 6.12 per cent for music pupils and 4.55 per cent for college students in general. The correlation between high-school music marks and general-scholarship marks was low ( $.252 \pm .0261$ ). The percentage of withdrawals among music pupils was slightly less than the percentage in the school as a whole (14.1 as against 16.3). Marked improvement was evident in the last two years of the five-year period studied. When the newness of the work and its special and non-academic nature are considered, these findings would hardly justify an unfavorable conclusion with regard to the relation of instrumental music to the high-school curriculum. The problem calls for continued study with careful organization and wise adjustment.

Chief among the problems of administration are securing a competent director, providing for adequate financial support, avoiding interference with other school work, providing satisfactory practice and rehearsal facilities, and maintaining satisfactory relations with musicians' unions. The chief educational values of the work lie in the vocational possibilities, the opportunity for school and community co-operation, and the contribution of musical training to the leisure-time objective.

## A STUDY OF PUPIL ELIMINATION IN THE NEW HAVEN HIGH SCHOOL

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This article presents a study of pupils eliminated from the New Haven High School before graduation, a comparison—wherever possible—of this group with those who remained to graduate, and finally an attempt to answer the question: Why do pupils leave school before graduation? The writer studied the records of a random sampling of the pupils entering the school during the years 1923-27 who left before the completion of their courses. The total number represented is 1,091. Since the investigation was not primarily concerned with those individuals (284 in number) who left to go immediately to other schools, a study of their records is not included.

In order to determine what reasons the pupils would give for leaving school, the writer interviewed 272 of the 877 pupils remaining after eliminating the 214 who were known to have gone immediately to other schools. The pupils interviewed were chosen at random from the group of 877 whose records had been copied, though an attempt was made to include in the group representatives from all sections of the city. Seventy of the 272 pupils said that they had entered other schools immediately. One pupil left to be tutored in his home, and five are deceased. The data for this group are not included in the findings which follow.

The records of the group of 801 remaining after eliminating the number who entered other schools, the number deceased, and the pupil who was being privately tutored were studied, and attempts were made to answer the following questions with regard to each individual. (1) How many years did he attend New Haven High School? In what month did he leave? (2) How old was he when he left? (3) What percentage of his work was below passing? What was his class standing? (4) In what course was he registered? (5)

What was his intelligence? (6) How did his teachers rate him in the following characteristics: initiative, industry, dependability, integrity, personality, courtesy, leadership, conduct? (7) Was the head of his family his father, mother, or a guardian?

The 196 individuals interviewed were asked these questions: (1) "Why did you leave school?" (2) "Were you dissatisfied with the school?" (3) "Are you sorry you left school?" (4) "Have you attended any other school or taken any correspondence courses since leaving New Haven High School?" (5) "What language is spoken in your home?"

The writer was brought into personal contact with most of the individuals studied. Members of the families gave the information requested in a few cases in which the individuals had left town or were at work when the investigator was free. In most cases there seemed to be a sincere desire to help by giving complete answers to the questions asked; in only one instance was there a refusal to give the information requested.

In order to indicate that the 196 individuals whose interviews are reported are representative of the total number of subjects, they are considered in two groups chosen at random, and throughout the study the data for the two are reported separately. It will be noted that the two groups are closely parallel.

Because of lack of space, data relating to the following phases of the subject are not recorded here: the months in which the pupils left school, the courses of study in which the pupils were enrolled, the head of the family, and the language spoken in the homes of eliminated pupils.

*Ages of the individuals at the time of their elimination.*—It is obvious that the older a pupil becomes, the stronger are the economic and social forces which would draw him away from school. Compulsory-attendance laws require that he attend school until he is fourteen, but, after that age is passed, pupils leave in large numbers. Table I gives the ages of the eliminated pupils at the time they left school.

*Subject failures.*—Retardation is as complex and important a subject as elimination, the two processes being, without doubt, closely related. Frequent comment has been made on the fact that pupils who fail in their work drop out in large numbers. While failure is not



necessarily the *cause* of leaving, there is a high correlation between the number of failures and the number of pupils leaving. Sometimes failure is the result of an intention to leave; sometimes leaving is the result of failure. Table II gives the distribution according to the percentage of failure of the pupils who left during the Freshman year. For example, a pupil taking four subjects and failing in two was given a failure rating of 50 per cent, while a pupil who was taking five subjects and failed in one was given a failure rating of 20 per cent. The marks are yearly averages except in the case of those

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF 801 PUPILS WHO LEFT HIGH SCHOOL BEFORE GRADUATION  
ACCORDING TO THEIR AGES AT THE TIME OF LEAVING

AGE	NUMBER OF PUPILS NOT INTERVIEWED	NUMBER OF PUPILS INTERVIEWED		TOTAL	PER CENT
		Group I	Group II		
12.....	1	0	0	1	0.1
13.....	4	0	0	4	0.5
14.....	78	10	14	102	12.7
15.....	164	17	19	200	25.0
16.....	189	26	36	251	31.3
17.....	106	26	20	152	19.0
18.....	48	13	4	65	8.1
19.....	6	4	4	14	1.7
20.....	5	2	1	8	1.0
21.....	2	0	0	2	0.3
25.....	2	0	0	2	0.3
Total....	605	98	98	801	100.0

who left before the end of the school year; in these instances the average of the work completed to the date of leaving was taken. Failure in New Haven High School is work rated below 60 per cent. The table shows that 243 of the 379 individuals in the group, or 64.1 per cent, did some failing work.

In order to compare the percentage of failure among those who left school with that among those who received their high-school diplomas, 1,058 pupils were chosen at random from the graduates of the New Haven High School, and the percentage of failure in the Freshman year was ascertained. Two and three-tenths per cent of these pupils did some failing work in the Freshman year as compared with 64.1 per cent in the group of pupils who left school dur-

ing or at the end of the Freshman year. In other words, only 24 of the 1,058 graduating pupils made failures in the Freshman year; of these, 22 failed in only one subject.

*Ability and intelligence of eliminated pupils.*—In order to determine whether failure to adjust to school work is due to general inability, an attempt was made to study the mentality of the elimi-

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECT FAILURE OF  
379 PUPILS WHO LEFT HIGH SCHOOL DURING OR AT  
THE END OF THEIR FIRST YEAR

PERCENTAGE OF FAILURE	NUMBER OF PUPILS NOT INTERVIEWED	NUMBER OF PUPILS INTERVIEWED		TOTAL
		Group I	Group II	
0.....	120	10	6	136
11-15.....	31	3	3	37
16-20.....	30	4	5	39
21-25.....	5	1	3	9
26-30.....	13	4	3	20
31-35.....	15	2	2	19
36-40.....	18	2	6	26
41-45.....	16	3	4	23
46-50.....	16	1	4	21
51-55.....	4	1	1	6
56-60.....	8	1	1	10
61-65.....	2	1	0	3
66-70.....	4	1	2	7
71-75.....	6	1	1	8
76-80.....	4	0	0	4
81-85.....	0	1	0	1
100.....	6	1	1	8
No marks.....	2	0	0	2
Total.....	300	37	42	379

nated group. This investigation proved difficult and unsatisfactory because of the variety of tests used. Pupils who entered in 1924 had been given the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability; those entering in 1925 had taken the Stanford Achievement Test; and to those who came into high school in 1927 the New Haven School Achievement Test had been administered. The fact that the results of this last test are expressed in percentile ranks (age and educational quotients) makes them of little value here since there are no class norms for comparison. Test data for pupils who entered in other years are not available. Data on the Stanford Achievement Test

were available for 126 individuals and data on the Terman test for 187, a total of 313. The results of the two tests are given in Table III.

Among the pupils entering in 1924, the chronological age was the same as the mental age in three cases. The lowest amount of acceleration was one month; the highest, three years and eleven months; the median, eleven months. The lowest amount of retardation was one month; the highest, four years and eight months; the median, one year and six months. The lowest chronological age was

TABLE III  
AMOUNTS OF ACCELERATION AND OF RETARDATION AMONG 187 ELIMINATED PUPILS WHO ENTERED HIGH SCHOOL IN 1924 AND AMONG 126 ELIMINATED PUPILS WHO ENTERED HIGH SCHOOL IN 1925

NUMBER OF YEARS	NUMBER OF ACCELERATED PUPILS		NUMBER OF RETARDED PUPILS	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
Less than one.....	39	24	43	27
One to two.....	19	29	27	14
Two to three.....	13	18	29	8
Three to four.....	3	0	11	2
Four to five.....	0	0	0	2
Total*.....	74	71	110	53

\* Three pupils entering in 1924 had the same chronological and mental ages. Two pupils entering in 1925 had the same chronological and achievement ages.

eleven years and three months; the highest, sixteen years and eleven months; the median, thirteen years and six months. The lowest mental age was ten years and six months; the highest, seventeen years and one month; the median, thirteen years and seven months.

Among the pupils entering in 1925, the chronological and achievement ages were the same in two cases. One year was the median amount of acceleration. The lowest amount of retardation was one month; the highest, four years and eight months. The median number of months of retardation was ten. The median chronological age of the 126 pupils represented in this group was thirteen years and ten months; the median achievement age, fourteen years and three months. The highest chronological age was twenty years and ten months; the lowest, twelve years and three months. The highest

achievement age was seventeen years and six months; the lowest, twelve years and one month.

*Teachers' ratings of personality characteristics.*—On the back of the permanent record card of each pupil in the New Haven High School is a list of eight characteristics: initiative, industry, dependability, integrity, personality, courtesy, leadership, and conduct. At the end of each year the pupil's home-room teacher considers whether the individual is above average, average, or below average in each of these qualities and checks the card accordingly. Thus, at the end of his fourth year a pupil has been rated by four different teach-

TABLE IV

TEACHERS' RATINGS OF PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF 745 ELIMINATED PUPILS AND OF 745 HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

CHARACTERISTICS	ABOVE AVERAGE		AVERAGE		BELOW AVERAGE	
	Number of Eliminated Pupils	Number of Graduates	Number of Eliminated Pupils	Number of Graduates	Number of Eliminated Pupils	Number of Graduates
Initiative.....	28	134	468	564	249	47
Industry.....	45	164	435	528	265	53
Dependability.....	54	162	503	553	188	30
Integrity.....	64	160	585	568	96	17
Personality.....	56	142	585	591	104	12
Courtesy.....	72	141	585	589	88	15
Leadership.....	27	84	524	630	194	31
Conduct.....	74	131	577	605	94	9

ers. Table IV gives the total ratings of the eliminated individuals. If a pupil left during his first year, the ratings of the one home-room teacher were recorded; if he remained more than a year, an average of all the teachers' estimates in each characteristic was taken. Fifty-six pupils did not remain long enough to receive ratings. In order to determine whether the ratings of the pupils eliminated from school differed from those of pupils who remained four years and graduated, a study was made of the characteristics of a random sampling of graduates of New Haven High School. For purposes of comparison the ratings of 745 individuals were recorded, this being the number represented in the eliminated group. Since each of the graduates, with the exception of those who entered with advanced standing from other schools, had been rated by four teachers, an average of

the four records was taken. Table IV also shows the ratings of the high-school graduates. Fifty-six individuals among the graduates were considered above average in all the characteristics; four of the eliminated pupils were rated above average in all the characteristics. Three hundred and fifty-five graduates were classed as average in all characteristics, while in the eliminated group 231 were rated as average. Only 3 of the 745 graduates were rated below average in all respects, whereas 26 of the eliminated pupils were so rated. The results noted here indicate that, when their teachers' estimates were used as guides, the eliminated pupils were markedly inferior to the graduates of New Haven High School in initiative, industry, dependability, integrity, personality, courtesy, leadership, and conduct. Initiative, industry, and leadership were the weakest points of the eliminated group as a whole.

*Individuals' reasons for leaving school.*—As has been indicated throughout this article, factors which determine whether an individual will complete his high-school course are numerous, varied, and complex. Some of these the pupil himself does not recognize, and his decision to leave is determined by influences which he cannot fully grasp. Hence, the reason which he gives for leaving may be superficial, rather more of an excuse than a real reason. The 196 individuals interviewed gave the reasons shown in Table V. One girl told her father that she would not return to school in September of her second year unless she had nine new dresses. As her father could not afford to grant this very unreasonable wish, she left home, went to work, and has not been home since, though she now realizes how unreasonable she was.

In view of the fact that the desire to go to work was the reason most frequently given for leaving school, it is interesting to note the occupations in which the eliminated pupils were engaged. Of the 196 pupils interviewed, 29 were not working at the time they were questioned; 34 were working in various factories; 17 were doing stenographic work; 29 were working in stores; 6 were telephone operators; 5, plumbers; 4, electricians; 4 worked as assistants in bakeries; 4 held positions with the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad; and others reported various occupations from "freight shaker at Belle Dock" to "landscape architect."

*Attitudes of individuals toward school.*—The pupil's scholastic record is important in a study of why pupils leave school, but equally important is the pupil's view of the school and his attitude toward it. When the individuals were asked whether they had been dissatisfied with the high school, all but two answered negatively. One of the

TABLE V  
NINETEEN REASONS FOR LEAVING HIGH SCHOOL GIVEN BY 196 INDIVIDUALS  
WHO LEFT HIGH SCHOOL BEFORE GRADUATION AND  
NUMBER GIVING EACH REASON

	Group I (98 Persons)	Group II (98 Persons)	Total (196 Persons)
Wanted to go to work.....	20	25	45
Family needed financial help.....	21	18	39
Not interested in school and study.....	21	13	34
Discouraged by low marks; did not get along well in studies.....	11	16	27
Had ill health.....	6	4	10
Individual could give no reason for leaving.....	4	6	10
Played truant; did not study; got behind in work.....	3	6	9
Was absent; could not make up work.....	1	3	4
Had trouble with teacher.....	2	1	3
Lost interest in school because of interest in a girl.....	1	1	2
Did not realize the value of school.....	1	1	2
Left to marry.....	1	1	2
Wanted to study nursing.....	2	0	2
Was suspended; did not wish to return.....	2	0	2
Left home because of trouble there; then had to pay board.....	1	0	1
Joined army.....	1	0	1
Worked mornings; could not get to school on time.....	0	1	1
Father insisted that individual go to work.....	0	1	1
Teacher did not like individual; hence he did not get along well.....	0	1	1

two giving an affirmative answer said he did not like some of his teachers, and the other was dissatisfied with the studies he was taking. Neither wished to elucidate his statement. It is probable that, if these 196 individuals had been asked this question at the time they left school, more would have expressed dissatisfaction, but the years they had been away from school had changed their attitudes and points of view.

The answers to the question, "Are you sorry you left school?" are given in Table VI. Fourteen of those who are recorded as hav-

ing answered affirmatively qualified their answers in one of four ways: "a little," "in a way," "sometimes," "sort of." Eleven of those responding negatively modified their answers thus: "not right now," "not as I'm situated now," "not yet." Other comments which throw light on the feelings of some of the individuals follow.

Of course, a girl likes a diploma.

Education is nice; but, if you can't have it, there's no use feeling sorry about it.

I cried every day for a week and was sick in bed as a result of worrying because I had to leave school.

Maybe I'll be sorry a couple of years from now.

Well, I could use an education, but I can get it easily enough outside of school.

TABLE VI  
DISTRIBUTION OF 196 INDIVIDUALS ACCORDING TO THEIR  
REPLIES TO THE QUESTION "ARE YOU SORRY  
YOU LEFT SCHOOL?"

Reply	Number in Group I	Number in Group II	Total
Yes.....	50	41	91
No.....	43	53	96
Don't know.....	4	3	7
Yes and no.....	1	1	2

There was an opportunity during the calls on individuals to study the high school from the point of view of the family, members of which usually expressed regret that the child had left school even though the child himself was not always ready to do so.

*Study pursued by individuals after leaving high school.*—The 196 persons interviewed were asked whether they had attended any other school or taken correspondence courses since leaving New Haven High School. Thirty-six and seven-tenths per cent of Group I and 34.6 per cent of Group II, or 35.7 per cent of the total, had studied further.

*Implications of the investigation.*—The facts presented in this investigation suggest the following recommendations: (1) Schools



should make an effort to secure a better understanding of the pupils themselves. (2) Endeavor should be made to secure a less wasteful adjustment between the school and the entering pupils through the use of advisory systems and through the securing of information from the elementary schools from which the pupils come. (3) Greater endeavors should be made to cope with the problem of retardation; such endeavors involve a more nearly complete recognition of individual differences. (4) The curriculum should be reorganized in order to provide a more effective form of education for pupils who must leave school before finishing their high-school courses and in order to provide manual work for those interested in it. (5) Efforts should be made to improve the study habits of pupils through supervised study and conference hours.

## STILL MORE ABOUT SCORING REARRANGEMENT OR CONTINUITY TESTS

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Although scoring rearrangement or continuity tests has been discussed by a number of writers, it appears that no agreement as to the best method has been reached. The present writer has not settled the question but wishes to present a few data which bear upon it. Before proceeding to do so, however, he will summarize briefly the discussions referred to.

The first is by Wilson,<sup>1</sup> who suggests that such tests be scored by subtracting the number assigned each item by a pupil from the correct number whenever the latter is the larger, adding the differences so obtained, and subtracting their sum from the largest possible sum of such differences. Later, however, Wilson proposes another method,<sup>2</sup> which provides that a pupil's numbers be rearranged in the order of the correct ones, the number of larger ones below each entry in the rearranged column found and their sum taken as the score. Others, however, have not agreed that Wilson's second method is better than his first. Sangren and Woody<sup>3</sup> suggest a method equivalent to Wilson's first suggestion, although the procedure of arriving at a score differs slightly. It requires that all the differences between a pupil's numbers and the correct numbers be found and summed, the total divided by two, and the result subtracted from one-half the largest possible sum of such differences. The present writer<sup>4</sup> has also suggested a similar method, in which, however, the

<sup>1</sup> Howard E. Wilson, "The Continuity Test in History-teaching," *School Review*, XXXIV (November, 1926), 679-84.

<sup>2</sup> Howard E. Wilson, "Further Comments on the Scoring of Continuity Tests," *School Review*, XXXVIII (February, 1930), 115-23.

<sup>3</sup> Paul V. Sangren and Clifford Woody, *Sangren-Woody Reading Test, Manual of Directions*, p. 6. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1927.

<sup>4</sup> C. W. Odell, *Traditional Examinations and New-Type Tests*, pp. 406-8. New York: Century Co., 1928.

sum of the differences is subtracted from their largest possible sum. Thus, the score yielded is just twice that secured from either Wilson's first method or Sangren and Woody's method.

Another plan of scoring has been suggested by Nesmith,<sup>1</sup> which requires a comparison of the number given each item by a pupil with that given the item which should have a number just one less, one point of credit being given for each case in which the former number is greater than the latter.

Worcester,<sup>2</sup> writing after the scoring methods already described had been proposed, points out that none of them are satisfactory. Citing individual cases, he shows that injustice is done by the use of any of the methods and concludes that this type of test should be abandoned. It is undoubtedly true that no proposed method is perfect, but the present writer does not believe that the conclusion Worcester draws from this fact is justified. The continuity test possesses such great value for the measurement of certain phases of learning that abandoning it is not a satisfactory solution of the difficulty.

Finally, Cureton and Dunlap<sup>3</sup> and John<sup>4</sup> suggest that the  $\rho$  method of rank correlation between the correct order and the order given by a pupil yields the best score. Cureton and Dunlap, therefore, provide a nomograph by which results secured from partial application of this formula may be transmuted into scores ranging from 0 to 100. John, on the other hand, compares results obtained by the various scoring methods suggested with those obtained by use of rank correlation with a view to determining which of the other methods is the best. Her data, which are based on a single eight-item test given to fifty-five pupils, yield a correlation of about .98 between  $\rho$  scores and those given by Wilson's second method, of .94 between  $\rho$  scores and those given by Wilson's first method as well

<sup>1</sup> Robert W. Nesmith, "Scoring the Continuity Test," *School Review*, XXXVII (December, 1929), 764-66.

<sup>2</sup> D. A. Worcester, "Still Further Comments on the Scoring of the Continuity Test," *School Review*, XXXVIII (June, 1930), 462-66.

<sup>3</sup> Edward E. Cureton and Jack W. Dunlap, "Scoring the Rearrangement or Continuity Test," *School Review*, XXXVIII (October, 1930), 613-16.

<sup>4</sup> Lenore John, "A Comparison of Four Methods of Scoring the Continuity Test," *School Review*, XXXVIII (October, 1930), 617-21.

as between  $\rho$  scores and those given by Sangren and Woody's and Odell's methods, and of only about .38 between  $\rho$  scores and those given by Nesmith's method.

The study made by the present writer repeated John's except that the test used was much longer and the results were subjected to more statistical treatment. In addition to a practice exercise, the test consisted of eight groups of five items each and three groups of ten items each, or seventy items in all. The items were the names of characters in American history which were to be numbered in proper chronological order. Sixty university students took the test. The papers were scored by all the methods already discussed and also by three other methods: the number of whole sets of items correct, the number of single items correct, and the  $R$  method of rank correlation. The statistical results that appear significant are given in Table I. The table gives the coefficients of correlation between the scores obtained by the scoring methods mentioned and those obtained from the two methods of rank correlation, as well as those between the first eight and the last three sets for each method of scoring, and the number of elements a minute scored by an experienced clerk by each method.

It will be seen from the second and sixth columns that the correlation between total scores secured by the two rank methods is .92. Wilson's first method, the method of Sangren and Woody, and Odell's method yield scores correlating .90 with those obtained by the  $\rho$  method and .91 with those obtained by the  $R$  method. The number of single items gives corresponding coefficients of .78 and .92. Since the  $\rho$  method of rank correlation is generally considered more valid than the  $R$  method, correlations with the scores yielded by the former method are probably more significant than those yielded by the latter. Thus, it appears that the method of scoring recommended first by Wilson and also by Sangren and Woody and Odell gives better results than does any other of those compared with rank-correlation scores. This conclusion is supported by the coefficients for the scores of the single sets which are given in Columns 3 and 4 and 7 and 8 of the table.

The fifth column gives the coefficients of correlation between scores on the first eight and those on the last three sets of items.

Although these are not really coefficients of reliability, they give some evidence as to the reliability of the various methods. From the figures given it appears that, except in the case of the number of single items, there is no great difference among the methods. Wilson's second method yields slightly the highest correlation, but the differences are not great enough to be particularly significant.

TABLE I  
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION AND OTHER RESULTS SECURED FROM  
VARIOUS METHODS OF SCORING CONTINUITY TESTS

METHOD OF SCORING	CORRELATION WITH SCORES BY $\rho$ METHOD			CORRELATION BETWEEN FIRST EIGHT AND LAST THREE SETS	CORRELATION WITH SCORES BY $R$ METHOD			NUMBER OF ELEMENTS SCORED PER MINUTE
	Total Scores	Single-Set Scores*			Total Scores	Single-Set Scores*		
		First Eight Sets	Last Three Sets			First Eight Sets	Last Three Sets	
Number of whole sets . . .	.47	-.56	-.44	.06	.66	.68	.48	93
Number of single items . . .	.78	.63	.71	.34	.92	.75	.88	40
Wilson's first method . . .	.90	.90	.94	.53	.91	.92	.90	25
Sangren and Woody . . .	.90	.90	.94	.53	.91	.92	.90	20
Odell . . .	.90	.90	.94	.53	.91	.92	.90	22
Nesmith . . .	.67	.64	.45	.57	.82	.80	.60	15
Wilson's second method . .	.55	.73	.62	.59	.69	.89	.77	8
Rank-correlation $\rho$ . . .				.55	.92	.91	.93	8
Rank-correlation $R$ . . .	.92	.90	.94	.58				18
Cureton and Dunlap . . .	1.00	1.00	1.00	.55	.92	.91	.93	10

\* Single-set scores refer to the scores for the single sets of items of which the test was composed. These were dealt with separately, those for the first eight sets containing five items each in one group and those for the last three sets containing ten items each in another group.

The last column of the table, which gives the number of items scored a minute by an experienced scorer, shows quite marked differences among the different methods. The first method enumerated (the number of whole sets correct) is much the most rapid. At the other extreme are Wilson's second method and the  $\rho$  method of rank correlation. The figure of eight items a minute, the number scored for both these tests, is evidently too excessive a time cost. The order of the others, from the largest down, is number of single items, Wilson's first method, Odell's method, Sangren and Woody's method, the  $R$  rank-correlation method, Nesmith's method, and the method of Cureton and Dunlap.

Considering the several items of data presented in the table, the writer is of the opinion that there are five methods of about equal merit. The number of single items correct does not correlate with the best method so highly as do the others, but it is much more rapid. Wilson's first method is apparently slightly better than Sangren and Woody's method or Odell's method because it is slightly more rapid, but the differences are not great. The  $R$  method of rank correlation shows the highest correlation of any with the  $\rho$  method and is not enough slower than Wilson's to be entirely discarded because of the difference. The writer's general conclusion, therefore, is that any one of these five methods is fairly satisfactory but that further research, including perhaps the derivation of new methods of scoring, is needed.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Education by radio begins a new epoch.*—The year 1930 marked a turning point in the development of education by radio in the United States. This fact is suggested by a number of things which happened during that year. First, the National Advisory Committee on Education by Radio appointed by Secretary Ray Lyman Wilbur submitted its report to the Secretary on February 15. Second, there was held at the Ohio State University in June the first Institute on Education by Radio. Third, the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, financed by the Carnegie-Rockefeller interests, began its work with offices in New York. Fourth, the National Committee on Education by Radio, representing nine of our great national education associations, was organized. These four events mark the beginning of an awakening among the educational forces of America to the importance of radio as an educational tool both in the classroom and among adults. They mark the beginning of an interest which is certain to widen until the radio is as much a part of the classroom procedure as the blackboard or the textbook.

*Education on the Air*<sup>1</sup> is the record of the proceedings of the first Institute of Education by Radio. It is, therefore, a pioneering volume which everyone wishing to be familiar with this significant new field will wish to examine. The book contains the following seven sections: "Administration of Education by Radio," "Activity at Home and Abroad," "Radio in Educational Institutions," "Schools of the Air," "College Stations," "Investigations of Education by Radio," and "Educational Techniques in Broadcasting." Each of these sections contains addresses by persons of experience in the field about which they talk. Following each address is a stenographic report of the discussion from the floor. The questions and answers in these discussions bring out much useful information. The book is carefully indexed.

The quality of most of the material in this volume is unusually high. Although the effort of the monopoly interests to subordinate education to the commercial stations is in evidence, the other side is presented by persons who begin to sense the danger in such an arrangement.

<sup>1</sup> *Education on the Air*. Edited by Josephine H. MacLatchy. First Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1930. Pp. x+400. \$3.00.



From a reading of this book two things become clear. First, education by radio is here. Addresses by such leaders as R. S. Lambert, of the British Broadcasting Corporation; C. H. Mercer, of Canada; Armstrong Perry, of the United States; and R. G. Jones, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio, show clearly that the use of radio as an educational tool has passed from the stage of theory to that of actual practice in the hands of school men of recognized standing. The second fact which is clearly revealed in this volume (and which became even clearer in the Second Institute on Education by Radio, held at Ohio State University in June, 1931) is that the schools will have to fight for their rights on the air—that the school people must stand firmly for independent channels for the purpose of educational broadcasting. This point of view is set forth by Commissioner Ira E. Robinson, of the Federal Radio Commission, in the opening chapter, wherein he says:

Despite this early and prophetic warning, it cannot be denied that a monopoly of radio is now insistently claimed by a group and that its power and influence are so subtle and effective as to portend the greatest danger to the fundamentals of our government. No greater issue presents itself to the citizenry. A monopoly of mere property may not be so bad, but a monopoly of the voice and expression of the people is quite a different thing. The doctrine of free speech must be preserved. The use of the air for all, not for the few, must be protected. Shall the big business interests have the air, and the average man be denied it? It does not in reason suffice that he may hear what others say to him; he too has the right to speak.

That radio has great educational worth goes without saying; for it is but the human voice at long range and may be the voice of an instructor, whether school teacher, preacher, or statesman. One good lesson from a single instructor may reach millions of listeners [pp. 4-5].

Comptroller W. T. Middlebrook, of the University of Minnesota, points out: "Education, in spite of generous federal support, is a state responsibility. My own hope is that each state system of public education will eventually include an educational station" (p. 44).

JOY ELMER MORGAN

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION BY RADIO

*A guidance volume for teachers and prospective teachers.*—It is a fact of social and of individual consequence that most educational workers begin their careers with inadequate and faulty notions of professional demands and scope. Most candidates in training for teaching and allied endeavors continue to be self-selected, largely in the absence of published materials for aid that are worthy of study.

We have long had some rather helpful books and booklets in educational orientation, and Jordan, of Cornell University, has now provided a unique and highly useful volume of this specific nature.<sup>1</sup> It is a fine, readable welding of

<sup>1</sup> Riverda Harding Jordan, *Education as a Life Work: An Introduction into Education*. New York: Century Co., 1930. Pp. xii+304. \$2.00.

professional history, philosophy, organization, trend, requirement, and idealism. No type of service opportunity seems to have been neglected. Careers of great variety in level, control, incentive, and possibility have been deftly indicated. Compensations, limitations, and necessary preparations in these numerous fields have all been clearly presented in a descriptive and common-sense discussion.

It is difficult to know what youth needs to learn from experienced elders through such a treatment—what natural impressions may call for correction, what common-place facts must be expressed. The author has chosen with great care among the suggestions and associations that must have clamored as he wrote. He has produced a work equally worth while and interesting to those long in service and to those who are to come. It is explanatory without being too detailed and transient as to factual data. It seeks to build professional consciousness and reaches its height in professional appreciation and enthusiasm.

High-school students who are considering teaching as a profession may be expected to read it with comparative ease and much of assistance. Its major place of usefulness would seem to be in the preparatory institution—as a textbook and early in the program. Supplemented by periodical references and used as a background for individual researches concerning specialties of interest, it will provide a course of real value. Such courses are needed. They may be expected to bring us more workers who find keen satisfaction in service because of better professional adjustment.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

HOMER J. SMITH

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*Another yearbook on commercial education.*—The Third Yearbook<sup>1</sup> completes a three-year program started by the Executive Committee of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association in June, 1927. This yearbook comprises a set of abstracts of papers given at the 1930 meeting of the association and attempts to set forth "(1) an analysis of sound principles of educational administration and supervision and (2) an interpretation of these principles in varying types of educational institutions and in various business subjects offered by these institutions" (p. xi). It contains several articles by prominent educators dealing with trends in the administration and supervision of business education and an excellent article by Ned H. Dearborn entitled "Principles of Educational Administration and Supervision." The first half of the book, however, is apparently devoted to an attempt to determine just what are the problems of administration and supervision, and not a great deal is provided in the way of suggestions as to procedures in either administration or supervision. Part III

<sup>1</sup> *Administration and Supervision of Business Education*. Third Yearbook of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association. Philadelphia: Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association (Banks College), 1930. Pp. xviii+236.

is devoted to practical suggestions for administering the various separate subjects in the commercial curriculum, but few of these suggestions are of proved merit. They are merely statements of experienced teachers in these fields; as such, they are valuable even though their validity is not statistically proved.

In general, the reviewer feels that this set of brief abstracts has the same faults as the preceding issues of this series of yearbooks, namely, that the abstracts are so condensed that it is impossible for the reader to determine the bases on which the writers of the many sections reached their conclusions and that consequently he is unable to determine for himself whether or not the conclusions are justified. On the other hand, the literature on the administration and supervision of commercial education is extremely limited, and this book is a contribution of no small value. However, it needs to be supplemented in the future by studies which will determine the validity of the various procedures suggested.

E. G. BLACKSTONE

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

*A manual of activities for assembly and auditorium.*—One of the pronounced developments in recent years in the secondary-school field—and to a limited extent among elementary schools as well—has been the growth of the assembly as a definite feature in the educational program of the school. A carry-over from the college chapel service, the assembly of earlier days was usually a perfunctory religious exercise, an opportunity for announcements, or a vehicle for sporadic moralizing by the principal or an invited speaker. Many schools in recent years have adopted a type of all-school gathering which is held at regular intervals and which has a clearly educational objective, and they encourage a high degree of pupil participation in planning and executing the assembly.

This type of all-school assembly is not entirely a new thing. Its value was recognized more than twenty years ago by some educational pioneers. The Francis W. Parker School Year Book for 1913 entitled *The Morning Exercise as a Socializing Influence* has been to date the classic description of the pupil-centered type of assembly. It is only within the last decade, however, that there has come to be general appreciation of the possibilities which the auditorium provides.

A recent volume<sup>1</sup> traces the development of the new type of exercise, outlines in convincing fashion the objectives to be sought and the principles of organization which should be observed if the maximum of educational value is to be obtained, and presents a suggestive list of programs from many fields. One of the strong features of the book is its correlation of the assembly with classroom activities.

Chapters entitled "Music," "Art," "Social Science," "Foreign Languages," "Science and Mathematics," "Vocations," "Health and Recreation" give a

<sup>1</sup> Harry C. McKown, *Assembly and Auditorium Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. Pp. xxii+462.

large number of suggestions for programs which may grow out of the regular work of the classroom. Chapters entitled "Extracurricular Activities" and "Special Days" provide suggestions for motivation of the informal, non-classroom activities. The author's wide contact with secondary schools has made it possible for him to incorporate many practical examples which have stood the test of actual school production and to limit the list to programs which meet the educational criteria set up in the opening chapters.

A unique feature of the book is an Assembly Program Rating Scale, which provides for an estimation of the various qualities of a program under the main headings of "Material," "Presentation," and "Estimated Value in Achieving . . . Purposes." The author suggests a use of the scale either by a committee or by vote of the student body in evaluating programs produced by the various classes or organizations. Such use should serve both to clarify the thinking of school people as to the educational ends that the assembly may serve and to focus the attention of the school on qualities judged desirable.

The treatment as a whole is complete, readable, and convincing. The essential theme—that the assembly is a whole-school experience in which the entire student body shares—is one with which the thoughtful student of education will agree. McKown's volume is easily the most serviceable book which has appeared in the discussion of this important field of school activity.

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

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*Literature for the junior high school.*—In evaluating books of readings designed for school use, one immediately asks two questions: What is the basis of the selection? What plan of organization has been followed? The compilers of *Junior Literature*<sup>a</sup> have evidently been guided by two considerations: the natural reading interests of junior high school pupils and the literary quality of the readings. Variety also has been striven for. Even upon casual examination one is impressed by the range and variety of the material; upon closer acquaintanceship one sees that this widely representative character of the readings (from the standpoint of literary form and subject matter) is an outstanding quality of the books. A sampling of the titles of Book One shows "Tom Sawyer and the Cat," "A Group of Aesop's Fables in Verse," "Hiawatha's Fasting," "Rip Van Winkle," "Scrooge's Christmas," "Adventures of Robinson Crusoe," "The Inchcape Rock," "The Call of the Wild," "Stories from the Old Testament," "An Elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog," and Kipling's "If." A similar diversity is apparent in Books Two and Three. A glance at the list of authors represented reveals a preponderance of names favorably established in the annals of litera-

<sup>a</sup> a) Sterling A. Leonard and Harold Y. Moffett, *Junior Literature: Book One*, pp. viii+598, \$1.24; *Book Two*, pp. viii+616, \$1.24. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930.

b) Sterling A. Leonard, Harold Y. Moffett, and Maurice W. Moe, *Junior Literature, Book Three*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. Pp. viii+654. \$1.48.

ture. Again sampling the contents of Book One, we find Stockton, Tennyson, Meredith, Holmes, Stedman, Longfellow, Whittier, Lanier, Cowper, Shakespeare, Bunyan, Malory, Southey, Stevenson, Carlyle, Keats, Lamb, Franklin, Goldsmith, and Hawthorne, as well as many other familiar names. In the light of these facts, the authors may justly be complimented on their painstaking effort to assemble a body of interesting reading matter through which the junior high school pupil may make valuable literary contacts.

A significant question remains to be answered: What plan of organization, if any, is followed? Apparently, no effort was made to secure continuity of subject matter and little effort to group readings in such a way as to emphasize related themes, subjects, or types. The informal order characteristic of the "readers" of a somewhat earlier period seems to prevail. An occasional grouping (as in the case of ballads or a few poems and stories about Columbus) fails to destroy the impression of mechanical or accidental sequence. Is there a pedagogical or psychological advantage in grouping readings according to topical units, or themes? Is cumulative emphasis secured by such grouping? Are attitudes reinforced? Is continuity of interest served and promoted by logical reading sequences? These are basic issues. Upon these will rest the teacher's approval or disapproval of the organization pattern of books of literature offered for children's reading. The present reviewer's opinion is that in the junior high school course in literature it is important to set up definite "reading units" on the basis of related topics or themes.

One other feature of *Junior Literature* which deserves comment is the inclusion of three complete major selections of fiction, one in each book. They are "The Call of the Wild," "Treasure Island," and "The Talisman" (in abridged form). Nearly one-third of the total pages of the three volumes are devoted to this purpose. This procedure is a distinctive feature of the books and one which will be particularly appreciated in schools with limited library facilities. Many teachers, however, would prefer to use the library for "Treasure Island" and would welcome further literary enrichment of the books by the use of additional brief selections similar to other excellent materials assembled in these new readers.

HARRIS TEACHERS COLLEGE

ROY IVAN JOHNSON

*A comparison of oral and written English of high-school pupils.*—The object and general method of a study by Bushnell<sup>1</sup> are clearly stated in his first paragraph: "to discover how the stenographic records of simple narrations or conversations, delivered by one hundred tenth-grade pupils after brief preparation, compare with the corresponding written expression of the identical material

<sup>1</sup> Paul P. Bushnell, *An Analytical Contrast of Oral with Written English*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 451. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. vi+88. \$1.50.

secured two weeks later from the same pupils" (p. 1). At the outset it was entirely apparent to the investigator that comparisons and contrasts of the relative and ultimate effectiveness of the pupils' speech and writing could scarcely be made. The study is, then, limited to a scrutiny of the more "obvious and mechanical phases of language," particularly to those phases relating to grammatical quality, sentence structure, and diction.

A word will suffice as to the procedure employed by the author. Ten parallel sections in tenth-grade English participated in the experiment. After a very few moments of preparation following the announcement of the topics, "How I Learned a Lesson" and "A Good Plan That Went Wrong," pupils were asked to speak on one or the other of the subjects. A competent stenographer made verbatim records of the talks. Two weeks later the same pupils were allowed twenty minutes to write on the same subjects they had used for their speeches. The two weeks which had elapsed were deemed sufficient to erase any detailed memory of the preceding oral activity.

The results of the experiment are neither surprising nor startling. They are those that any sensitive teacher would unhesitatingly surmise. Among them are the following: Ninety-eight per cent of the pupils wrote more accurately and thoughtfully than they spoke. No reliable sex differences were discovered. There was a close correspondence between skill in speaking and skill in writing for individual pupils. (The better speakers were the better writers and vice versa.) Fluency correlated positively with accuracy and quality of content.

The reviewer believes that the study has real value in offering scientifically obtained answers to a number of questions frequently asked by English teachers and program-makers. Its scope is limited by the requirements of objectivity. Therein, of course, lies its weakness. Linguistic habits are compared; broad linguistic effectiveness is not specifically considered. Moreover, even though two weeks elapsed between the oral and written efforts, there can be little doubt that the oral practice had some influence on the written result, especially as brief class discussion followed the several talks. Unquestionably, the rather stereotyped topics were also restricting factors, necessary as they appear to be in an experimental situation.

To Bushnell's conclusions one can take little exception. One conclusion is especially significant. Oral discourse tends to be inferior to written discourse in content and manner chiefly for the reason that both social and individual standards are higher in the case of the latter. We are either deaf or self-protectively inattentive to defects in speech that force themselves offensively upon us when they appear in writing. The remedy for this condition of affairs seems to be the more conscious employment of written standards, as they concern propriety of detail and the reflection of thought, to both our familiar and more formal oral expression.

HOWARD FRANCIS SEELY

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY



*A fresh school edition of Vergil.*—It is a bit surprising that an editor who is known for his original treatment of beginning Greek should have given us in an edition of Vergil<sup>1</sup> only the traditional first six books of the *Aeneid*, especially as his Introduction emphasizes topics which would have been greatly illuminated by at least the First and Fourth Eclogues. The text is Hirtzel's, modified only in capitalization, in the marking of long vowels, and in certain details of spelling, notably the use of *j* for consonant *i*.

A ten-page introduction presents the life of Vergil, his literary characteristics and fame, the mythological and religious background of the *Aeneid*, a chronological table, and a brief but well-selected list of references. Morris' verse translation and Sainte-Beuve's study of Vergil might well have been included. Forms, syntax, and prosody are treated in an appendix, a full index following. A consecutive numbering of the pages throughout text and appendix would avoid some confusion. The vocabulary and notes for each page are placed below the text. The usual map is included, and the twenty-four clear illustrations evidence much care and skill in selection and placement, though the description of the Apollo Belvedere is inappropriate to the detail shown on page 277. The clearness of print and style are marred by few lapses.

There are some admirable hints for study on pages 11-12. The editor properly condemns the traditional lesson assignment, advises much sight reading (advice which is marred, however, by the unpsychological suggestion to read the vocabulary beforehand), and strongly approves a plan of supervised study with emphasis on reading.

The notes abound in childish and oft-repeated explanations. Most of this space could better be used in giving emphasis to the poet's high literary qualities or in giving the editor's own scholarly, clear, and lively comment on the text. The editor, however, is caught in the demand for elementary grammatical detail, for suggested translations, for the supplying of obvious ellipses, and for the recasting of word order to fit the vernacular speech habits of pupils, which he seems to expect them to retain. Hence, we must be content to find refreshment only in oases.

The chief claim of the book is its "visible-vocabulary system." There is no single complete vocabulary. The most common words (we are not told how common), about 140 in number, are printed in italics in the text and are assembled on an extensible sheet in the back of the book. All other words on each page of the text, no matter how often they have previously occurred, are given in the special vocabulary of the page with the special translation required in the passage. First occurrences and words occurring more than ten times in the six books are specially marked. The many advantages claimed for this scheme boil down to the saving of time and the more "natural" learning of vocabulary. In the absence of the details of the "extensive series of experiments" on which the editor bases his claims, the reviewer can scarcely deny the claims, but he

<sup>1</sup> *Vergil's Aeneid*, Books I-VI. Introduction, Notes, Vocabulary, and Grammatical Appendix by Clyde Pharr. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1930. Pp. xii+368+96.



may be pardoned some skepticism. Certainly some relief is needed from the drudgery of thumbing the vocabulary. However, is not this drudgery imposed on the pupil by the vicious assumption that the reading of a Latin classic is synonymous with the translation of it? This assumption justifies the pupil in resorting to a "trot"; and the editor's scheme merely substitutes a licit for an illicit help. The mixture of roman and italic type mars the appearance of the text. Whether it would also divert attention from the thought to the mechanics of expression is a matter for experiment. The general word list is itself inadequate. According to accepted standards, the pupil should have a vocabulary of about 1,500 words when he begins Vergil, and he should learn about 500 more during the Vergil year; but, of the mastery list of 140 words, only about 15 per cent are Vergilian, most of the rest having been learned earlier. Some means should be devised of reviewing the earlier words and learning important new ones as they are encountered and of developing the ability to divine the meaning of unfamiliar words, as we do in English, from their context or formation. The "visible vocabulary" does nothing to encourage the pupil to make the vocabulary a last resort, nor should we expect it to develop the real word mastery so essential in wide reading—that of thinking fundamental meanings and selecting the particular phase of meaning required by the context. Hence, it is the reviewer's judgment that the brief and well-directed Introduction and the fresh historical notes, rather than the "visible-vocabulary" scheme, constitute the chief contribution of this edition.

WREN JONES GRINSTEAD

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- ALEXANDER, CARTER. *Educational Finance Studies: Summaries and Evaluations for School Administrators of Recent Educational Finance Dissertations at Teachers College, Columbia University*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. vi+92.
- BRUNSTETTER, M. R. *Business Management in School Systems of Different Sizes: A Study of Certain Aspects of Business Management in Nine New Jersey Cities*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 455. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. viii+136. \$1.50.
- BURR, MARVIN Y. *A Study of Homogeneous Grouping in Terms of Individual Variations and the Teaching Problem*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 457. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. x+70. \$1.50.
- CASE, ROSCOE DAVID. *The Platoon School in America*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1931. Pp. xxiv+284. \$3.00.

- COLE, PERCIVAL R. *A History of Educational Thought*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1931. Pp. x+316. \$3.50.
- COLE, ROBERT D. *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1931. Pp. xxiv+598. \$3.00.
- CURTIS, FRANCIS D. *Second Digest of Investigations in the Teaching of Science*. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Inc., 1931. Pp. xx+424. \$3.00.
- DEWEY, JOHN. *The Way Out of Educational Confusion*. The Inglis Lecture, 1931. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1931. Pp. 42.
- Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*. Edited by Thomas Woody. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1931. Pp. xvi+270. \$2.00.
- FITZPATRICK, F. BURKE. *Supervision of Elementary Schools*. Dansville, New York: F. A. Owen Publishing Co., 1931. Pp. 128. \$1.00.
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